

# Motion Planning for a Convex Polygon in a Polygonal Environment\*

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## Abstract

We study the motion-planning problem for a convex  $m$ -gon  $P$  in a planar polygonal environment  $Q$  bounded by  $n$  edges. We give the first algorithm that constructs the *entire* free configuration space (the 3-dimensional space of all free placements of  $P$  in  $Q$ ) in time that is near-quadratic in  $mn$ , which is nearly optimal in the worst case. The algorithm is also conceptually relatively simple. Previous solutions were incomplete, more expensive, or produced only part of the free configuration space. Combining our solution with parametric searching, we obtain an algorithm that finds the largest placement of  $P$  in  $Q$  in time that is also near-quadratic in  $mn$ . In addition, we describe an algorithm that preprocesses the computed free configuration space so that ‘reachability’ queries can be answered in polylogarithmic time.

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## 1 Introduction

**Problem statement.** Let  $P$  be a closed convex  $m$ -gon. We consider the problem of planning a collision-free motion for  $P$  inside a closed planar polygonal *environment*  $Q$ , bounded by a total of  $n$  edges. We allow  $P$  to translate and rotate. A (*congruent*) *placement* of  $P$  is thus any congruent copy of  $P$  (without reflections). A placement of  $P$  is *free* if it is fully contained in  $Q$ , and *semifree* if it is free and the boundary  $\partial Q$  of  $Q$  touches the boundary  $\partial P$  of  $P$ . Any placement of  $P$  can be represented by three real parameters  $(x, y, \tan \frac{\theta}{2})$ , where  $(x, y)$  is the position of a reference point of  $P$  and  $\theta$  is the counter-clockwise angle by which  $P$  is rotated from some fixed orientation. The space of all placements of  $P$ , known as *configuration space*, is thus identified with  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The *free configuration space*  $\mathcal{C}$  of  $P$  in  $Q$  is the space of all free placements of  $P$  in  $Q$ , and the boundary  $\partial\mathcal{C}$  corresponds to the set of all semifree placements. Note that  $\mathcal{C}$  is a closed set. If scaling of  $P$  is also permitted, the configuration space is four dimensional, where the scaling factor is the fourth coordinate.

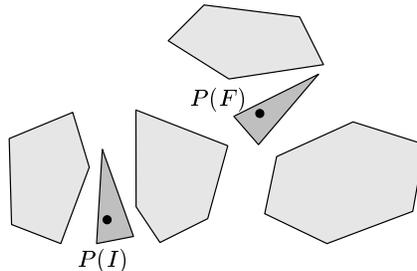


Figure 1: Motion planning for a convex polygon inside a polygonal environment

We wish to consider two types of problems in this context:

*Motion Planning:* Construct  $\mathcal{C}$ , the space of all free congruent placements of  $P$ . Preprocess  $\mathcal{C}$  so that one can determine efficiently whether two given placements  $I, F$  of  $P$  lie in the same connected component of  $\mathcal{C}$ ; that is, whether there exists a collision-free motion of  $P$  inside  $Q$  from one of these placements to the other. If so, then also return a path from  $I$  to  $F$  that lies within  $\mathcal{C}$ . See Figure 1.

*Largest Placement:* Allowing scaling, find a largest similar copy of  $P$  that fits inside  $Q$ .

**Previous results.** Both problems are important basic problems in robotics and manufacturing, and have been studied intensively in computational geometry, starting about 15 years ago. Some of the initial results on this problem can be found in [11, 22, 29, 32]; these algorithms are either inefficient or consider only special cases (e.g., where  $P$  is assumed to be a line segment). The first significant progress was made by Leven and Sharir [23], who analyzed the *combinatorial complexity* of  $\mathcal{C}$  when no scaling is allowed, which can be measured by the number of free *critical placements* of  $P$ . A placement  $Z$  of  $P$  is called critical

if there exist three distinct pairs  $(e_1, v_1)$ ,  $(e_2, v_2)$ , and  $(e_3, v_3)$ , so that for each  $i = 1, 2, 3$ , either  $e_i$  is an obstacle edge and  $v_i$  is a vertex of  $P$  or  $e_i$  is an edge of  $P$  and  $v_i$  is an obstacle vertex, and the vertex  $v_i$  touches the edge  $e_i$  at placement  $Z$ . Leven and Sharir showed that this complexity of  $\mathcal{C}$  is  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn))$ . Here  $\lambda_s(q)$  is the maximum length of  $(q, s)$ -Davenport-Schinzel sequences [30], which is nearly linear in  $q$  for any fixed  $s$ . They also show that the complexity of  $\mathcal{C}$  is  $\Omega(m^2n^2)$  in the worst case. Thus the complexity of  $\mathcal{C}$  is near-quadratic in  $mn$ . The goal then was to compute  $\mathcal{C}$  in time that is also near-quadratic in  $mn$ . The first result in this direction was obtained by Kedem and Sharir [20], where an  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn)\log mn)$ -time algorithm was proposed. However, this algorithm turned out to have a technical difficulty. The algorithm constructs  $\mathcal{C}$  in two stages. The first stage computes a *superset* of all the vertices of  $\mathcal{C}$ , where each such vertex is a free ‘critical’ placement of  $P$  in  $Q$ , as defined above, and then aims to filter out the spurious vertices (non-free placements). The next stage sweeps  $\mathcal{C}$  with a plane  $\pi$  orthogonal to the  $\theta$  (rotational) direction, and maintains the cross section  $\mathcal{C} \cap \pi$ . This cross section changes combinatorially only at orientations  $\theta$  of critical placements, and all such changes are purely local. The difficulty is in handling critical placements at which a new component of  $\mathcal{C} \cap \pi$  appears. At this stage of the sweep there is no local context from which one can determine whether such a placement is *valid* (that is, free) or *spurious* (non-free). This makes the filtering process rather complicated, and some of the cases were not handled correctly [20].

Two subsequent papers aimed to address this problem. The first solution is given by Sharir and Toledo [31]. It processes  $Q$  into several range-searching data structures, and then it queries these structures with each placement of  $P$  produced by the algorithm of [20]. This allows one to detect and discard non-free placements, but the cost of each query is  $O(m \log n)$ , resulting in an overall complexity close to  $O(m^3n^2)$ , which is significantly more expensive when  $m$  is large, which is what we assume here. A second solution is given by Kedem et al. [21], which remains within the time complexity  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn)\log mn)$  of the algorithm of [20]. They apply an additional exploratory stage that aims to determine the nature of those critical placements where new cross-sectional components may arise, but this stage may fail to do so for some of these placements. As a result, their algorithm computes correctly only the ‘interesting’ components of  $\mathcal{C}$ , and does not produce any ‘uninteresting’ component. Whether or not a component is interesting is defined in terms of presence of certain non-convex features in some cross-sections of its boundary. Given an initial free placement  $I$  of  $P$ , the algorithm is guaranteed to construct the connected component of  $\mathcal{C}$  that contains  $I$  (which suffices for most motion planning applications), and may compute some other components, but it is not guaranteed to produce all components of  $\mathcal{C}$ . Consequently, their solution can determine in  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn)\log mn)$  time whether there exists a collision-free path between two placements of  $P$  and plan such a path if it exists, but it cannot determine in time that is near-quadratic in  $mn$  whether a congruent copy of  $P$  can be placed inside  $Q$  at all. For other solutions to the problem, which are less efficient but also apply to the case when  $P$  is nonconvex, see [10].

The case in which scaling is allowed and we seek the largest placement of  $P$  inside  $Q$

has been studied in [14, 31]. Using generalized Delaunay triangulations induced by  $P$  in  $Q$ , Chew and Kedem [14] gave an  $O(m^4 n^2 \alpha(n) \log n)$ -time algorithm for computing a largest free similar placement of  $P$  in  $Q$ ; here  $\alpha(n)$  is the inverse Ackermann's function. A variant of this algorithm also solves the motion-planning problem for  $P$  in  $Q$ , with the additional advantage of finding a ‘high-clearance’ motion, where  $P$  aims to stay as far away from the boundary of  $Q$  as possible; see [14] for a more precise definition. Sharir and Toledo [31] proposed another algorithm that combines parametric searching [25] with a construction of the entire configuration space for the fixed-size case, as in the preceding paragraph; the running time of their algorithm is close to  $O(m^3 n^2)$ . If only translation and scaling are allowed, the largest homothetic placement of  $P$  inside  $Q$  can be computed in time  $O(mn \log n)$ , using the generalized Voronoi diagram of  $\partial Q$  induced by  $P$  [19, 24].

In [2], a much simpler situation is discussed where  $Q$  is also a convex polygon, although the resulting problems are still challenging and have an interesting geometric structure. It is shown there that a largest scaled copy of  $P$  that can fit inside  $Q$  can be computed in  $O(mn^2 \log n)$  time. The combinatorial complexity of the four-dimensional space  $\mathcal{C}'$  of all *similar* placements of  $P$  inside  $Q$  is proven to be  $O(mn^2)$ , which is tight in the worst case. It is shown that  $\mathcal{C}'$  can be computed in  $O(mn^2 \log n)$  time. It is interesting that no better bounds are known for the space of all *congruent* placements.

**New results and methods.** We present a randomized divide-and-conquer algorithm for computing  $\mathcal{C}$ , whose expected running time is  $O(mn \lambda_6(mn) \log mn \log n)$ . The merge step of the algorithm is based on a line-sweep algorithm. Our technique is quite general and can be applied to other problems, as discussed in a remark at the end of Section 2.2. This is the first correct solution whose running time is near quadratic in  $mn$  and which produces the entire configuration space  $\mathcal{C}$ . Our algorithm is relatively simple, at least conceptually. It has the advantage that it is easy to parallelize, which is needed in our solution to the largest-placement problem, see Section 4. Even for the task of computing only a portion of  $\mathcal{C}$ , our algorithms are simpler than the ones in [21, 31]. We can preprocess  $\mathcal{C}$  in  $O((mn)^{2+\epsilon})$  time so that we can efficiently answer *reachability queries*: for any two placements of  $P$ , we can determine in  $O(\log mn)$  time whether there is a collision-free motion from one to the other (i.e., whether they lie in the same connected component of  $\mathcal{C}$ ). A variant of the algorithm can also produce a path connecting the two placements, in additional time proportional to the combinatorial complexity of the path. No claims of optimality of the resulting path are made.

Using an approach based on parametric searching, similar to that of [31], we can find the largest similar placement of  $P$  in  $Q$ , in randomized expected time  $O(mn \lambda_6(mn) \log^3 mn \log^2 n)$ , thus improving significantly over the previous bounds in [14, 31]. Parametric searching requires an ‘oracle’ procedure that has to determine, for a given size of  $P$ , whether the corresponding  $\mathcal{C}$  is nonempty, which we can do using our algorithm for computing the entire  $\mathcal{C}$ . Notice that we cannot use the algorithm of Kedem et al. [21] here, because it may miss some of the components of  $\mathcal{C}$ , nor the algorithm of Kedem and Sharir [20], as it may produce placements that are not free.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the randomized algorithm for computing the free configuration space. Section 3 presents the data structures for answering reachability queries, and Section 4 describes the algorithm for computing a largest copy of  $P$  that can be placed inside  $Q$ .

## 2 Constructing the Free Configuration Space

Consider a convex  $m$ -gon  $P$  translating and rotating rigidly in a general polygonal environment  $Q$  bounded by  $n$  edges, without scaling. Recall that the space of all placements of  $P$  is three-dimensional, and can be parameterized by  $(x, y, \tan \frac{\theta}{2})$ , where  $(x, y)$  is the position of a reference point of  $P$  and  $\theta$  is the counter-clockwise angle by which  $P$  is rotated from some fixed reference orientation.<sup>1</sup> We assume that  $P$  and  $Q$  are in *general position*. In our context, this means that no two obstacle vertices have the same  $x$ -coordinate and there is no placement of  $P$  at which four “independent” constraints imposed on  $P$  by its possible contacts with  $Q$  are simultaneously satisfied. Each constraint corresponds to a set of placements of  $P$  at which a vertex of  $P$  touches an edge of  $Q$ , an edge of  $P$  touches a vertex of  $Q$ , or the segment connecting two points of contact (between  $P$  and  $Q$ ) is normal to the edge of  $P$  or  $Q$  involved in one of these contacts. See Leven and Sharir [23] for details. Figure 2 depicts a few degenerate positions (i.e., placements not in general position).

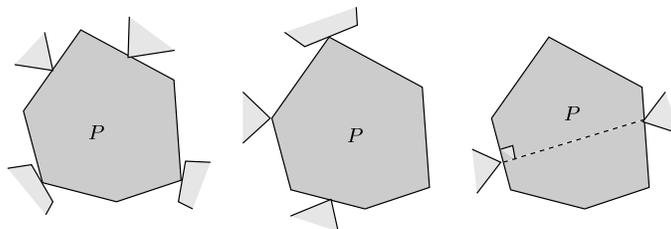


Figure 2: Typical degenerate positions.

We triangulate  $Q^c$ , the complement of  $Q$ , using Steiner points if necessary, so that the degree of each vertex in the triangulation is bounded by a constant; such a triangulation can be constructed, e.g., by computing the vertical decomposition of  $Q^c$  and by triangulating each trapezoid of the vertical decomposition. From now on we assume, for technical reasons, that  $Q^c$  is the union of  $n$  *disjoint open triangular obstacles*, some of which may be unbounded. Note that the new  $n$  is larger than the original  $n$  by only a constant factor. Also observe that replacing general polygonal obstacles with disjoint open triangles adds

<sup>1</sup>Special treatment is required for  $\theta = \pm\pi$ . In brief, even though at these points  $\tan \frac{\theta}{2} \rightarrow \pm\infty$ , we represent them explicitly. At the end of our construction we identify the two cross-sections  $\theta = -\pi$ ,  $\theta = +\pi$ , as they correspond to the same physical placements. This is necessary in order not to lose connectivity along paths that cross the  $\theta = \pm\pi$  cross-section.

zero-width “passages” to  $Q$ . However, it does not affect the free configuration space  $\mathcal{C}$  in any significant way, as long as  $P$  has non-empty interior.

We will use  $P(Z)$  to denote  $P$  at a placement  $Z$ . We define a *contact* to be a triple  $(e, v, \Delta)$ , where  $e$  is an edge of the obstacle  $\Delta$  and  $v$  is a vertex of  $P$ , or  $e$  is an edge of  $P$  and  $v$  is a vertex of  $\Delta$ .<sup>2</sup> In the former case, there is a unique contact triple corresponding to a physical contact of  $v$  and  $e$ , and in the latter case, since each vertex of  $Q$  is incident to  $O(1)$  triangular obstacles, there are only  $O(1)$  contact triples corresponding to such a physical contact. The total number of contacts is therefore  $O(mn)$ . If  $\Delta$  is not important or is obvious from the context, we will omit  $\Delta$ . A placement  $Z$  of  $P$  involves a contact  $(e, v, \Delta)$  if the vertex  $v$  lies on the edge  $e$ ;  $Z$  is called *locally free* if  $P(Z)$  does not intersect  $\Delta$ .

We present a randomized algorithm for computing the boundary  $\partial\mathcal{C}$  of  $\mathcal{C}$ . More precisely, we compute each connected component of  $\partial\mathcal{C}$ , decompose it into  $xy$ -monotone patches, and represent each patch as a planar map, using any standard representation (see, e.g., [27, 32]). The expected running time of the algorithm is  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn)\log^2 mn)$  and is thus close to the the worst-case complexity bound for  $\mathcal{C}$ . As usual for this type of algorithms, the expectation is over the random choices made by the algorithm, for any fixed input, and not over any assumed distribution of the input data.

## 2.1 Overall approach

Both algorithms are based on the following approach. For each (open) triangular obstacle  $\Delta$ , let  $K(\Delta)$  denote the set of ‘forbidden’ placements of  $P$  at which it intersects  $\Delta$ . These are open sets, and  $\mathcal{C}$  is the complement of their union, so it suffices to compute the boundary of the union  $K = \bigcup_{\Delta} K(\Delta)$ . For each obstacle  $\Delta_0$ , we compute the faces of  $\partial K$  that lie in  $\partial K(\Delta_0)$ , and then patch these faces together to construct  $\partial K$ . This leads to the following simple high-level description of our algorithms: Fix an obstacle  $\Delta_0$ , and compute the intersections  $A(\Delta) = K(\Delta) \cap \partial K(\Delta_0)$ , for every obstacle  $\Delta \neq \Delta_0$ . Construct the 2-dimensional union of the sets  $A(\Delta)$ , and form its complement within  $\partial K(\Delta_0)$ . This complement is exactly the portion of  $\partial K$  that is contained in  $\partial K(\Delta_0)$ . After applying this procedure to all obstacles  $\Delta_0$ , we have computed all the two-dimensional faces of  $\partial\mathcal{C}$  and the edges and vertices incident to them. Thus for each face  $f$  of  $\partial\mathcal{C}$ , we have the list of all faces adjacent to  $f$ . We can ‘glue’ together these faces, by performing a depth first search on the graph dual to  $\partial\mathcal{C}$ , to obtain an appropriate discrete representation of the entire boundary of  $K$ , and thus also of  $\partial\mathcal{C}$ . We omit the details concerning the gluing process, since they are straightforward and have been described earlier, see e.g. [18, 32]. Note that this approach does not identify which connected component of  $\mathcal{C}$  is adjacent to each face

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<sup>2</sup>Unlike Leven and Sharir [23], we include  $\Delta$  in the definition of a contact because a vertex may be shared by many triangular obstacles, and we prefer to regard  $(e, v, \Delta_1)$  and  $(e, v, \Delta_2)$ , where  $v$  is a common vertex of  $\Delta_1$  and  $\Delta_2$ , as two different contacts (especially while analyzing the running time of the algorithm), even though, geometrically, they correspond to the same contact.

of  $\mathcal{C}$ . We will show in Section 3.2 that we can compute this information in an additional  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn)\log mn)$  time.

We now describe in detail how to compute  $\partial K(\Delta_0)$ . Note that  $\partial K(\Delta_0)$  consists of all (free or non-free) placements of  $P$  at which its boundary makes a locally free contact with  $\partial\Delta_0$ . We partition  $\partial K(\Delta_0)$  into  $O(m)$  patches so that the same locally free contact  $(e, v, \Delta_0)$  is made for all placements of  $P$  within each patch. The boundary of each patch corresponds to placements at which  $P$  makes simultaneously two (locally free) contacts with  $\Delta_0$ ; here we regard a vertex of  $P$  touching a vertex of  $\Delta_0$  as a “double” contact. If a patch is not  $xy$ -monotone, we further partition it into a constant number of  $xy$ -monotone patches. This allows us to use the  $(x, y)$ -coordinate system when manipulating objects contained in a patch. (For convenience, we also cut the patches along the curves  $\theta = \pm\pi$ .) Such a partition is easy to obtain in  $O(m)$  time. We refer to the resulting patches as *contact surfaces*. It is easily checked that a contact surface has constant description complexity, in the sense that each patch is a portion of an algebraic surface of bounded degree and its boundary consists of  $O(1)$  algebraic arcs of bounded degree.

Repeating the process for every choice of  $\Delta_0$ , we obtain a collection of  $O(mn)$  2-dimensional contact surfaces  $\pi_{e,v}$ . For each such surface  $\pi \subset \partial K(\Delta_0)$ , we compute the intersections  $\Delta_\pi = \pi \cap K(\Delta)$ , for all obstacles  $\Delta \neq \Delta_0$ , and construct  $K_\pi = \pi \setminus (\bigcup_{\Delta \neq \Delta_0} \Delta_\pi)$ , the complement of their union within  $\pi$ .<sup>3</sup>  $K_\pi$  corresponds to placements at which  $v$  is in contact with  $e$  and  $P$  does not intersect the interior of any obstacle. Gluing these complements together will give us  $\partial K$ , as above. We refer to the sets  $\Delta_\pi$  as *virtual  $\pi$ -obstacles*.

Let  $\pi = \pi_{e,v}$  be a fixed contact surface. We can parameterize  $\pi$  by  $(\rho, \tan \frac{\theta}{2})$ , where  $\rho$  measures the displacement along  $e$  of its contact with  $v$  and  $\theta$  is the orientation of  $P$ . For an obstacle  $\Delta$ , constructing  $\Delta_\pi$  is easy: Note that, for any fixed  $\theta$ , the locus of placements contained in  $\Delta_\pi$  with orientation  $\theta$  is a line segment. (Indeed, the only motion available for  $P$  in this set is translation parallel to  $e$ ; the set of such translations at which the two convex polygons  $P$  and  $\Delta$  intersect is a line segment.) The combinatorial nature of an endpoint of this segment (i.e., the pair of features whose contact defines the endpoint) changes at only those orientations at which either (a) the line parallel to  $e$  through some vertex of  $P$  passes through some vertex of  $\Delta$ , or (b) an edge of  $P$  becomes parallel to an edge of  $\Delta$ . There are  $O(m)$  such orientations and there are only  $O(1)$  changes in the structure at each such orientation, so  $\partial\Delta_\pi$  consists of  $O(m)$  arcs. As shown in [29], each such arc is a section of an algebraic curve of degree at most 4.  $\Delta_\pi$  can easily be computed in  $O(m \log m)$  time by sorting and processing these orientations in increasing order. The total time needed to produce the sets  $\Delta_\pi$ , over all  $\Delta$ , is thus  $O(n) \times O(m \log m) = O(mn \log m)$ . The above

<sup>3</sup>If two obstacles  $\Delta_1, \Delta_2$  share a vertex  $v$ , then for an edge  $e \in P$ , we have two contacts  $(e, v, \Delta_1)$  and  $(e, v, \Delta_2)$ . Let  $\pi_1 \subseteq \partial K(\Delta_1)$  and  $\pi_2 \subseteq \partial K(\Delta_2)$  denote the corresponding contact surfaces, and let  $\bar{\pi}$  denote the set of all placements at which the edge  $e$  of  $P$  touches the vertex  $v$ . Then  $\pi_1, \pi_2 \subseteq \bar{\pi}$ . Although the two contact surfaces may not be identical, it is easily seen that  $K_{\pi_1} = K_{\pi_2}$ , so it suffices to compute only one of them. If two obstacles  $\Delta_1, \Delta_2$  share an edge  $e$  and  $v$  is a vertex of  $P$ ,  $\Delta_1$  and  $\Delta_2$  lie on opposite sides of  $e$ , so there are no locally free placements that realize contacts  $(e, v, \Delta_1)$  and  $(e, v, \Delta_2)$ , so there is no need to process the corresponding contact surface.

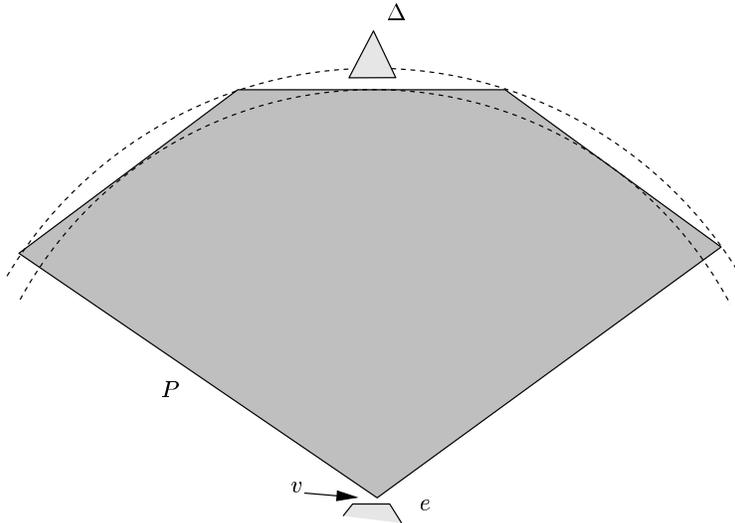


Figure 3:  $\Delta_\pi$  may consist of  $\Omega(m)$  connected components.  $P$  is a sector of a regular polygon;  $\Delta$  is placed at a distance from  $e$  which is between the radii of the inscribed and circumscribed circles of the polygon, and  $e$  is relatively short, so that  $P$  cannot be slid along  $e$  and then rotated so that a different edge is facing up, without overlapping  $\Delta$ .

arguments imply that each  $\Delta_\pi$  is  $\theta$ -monotone (in the coordinate frame representing  $\pi$ ). However,  $\Delta_\pi$  need not be connected. Indeed, it can have as many as  $m$  components in the worst case; see Figure 3.

## 2.2 Computing $K_\pi$

We fix a triangulated obstacle  $\Delta_0$  and compute  $K_\pi = \pi \setminus (\bigcup_{\Delta \neq \Delta_0} \Delta_\pi)$  using a randomized divide-and-conquer approach. We randomly divide the set of virtual  $\pi$ -obstacles into two equal subsets (so that every such partition occurs with equal probability), recursively compute the complements of their two unions in  $\pi$ , denoted by  $K_1, K_2$ , and compute  $K_\pi = K_1 \cap K_2$  using a standard sweep-line procedure. Since the boundaries of obstacles are not disjoint, the edges of  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  may overlap, so extra (albeit standard) care needs to be taken to handle degeneracies while computing  $K_1 \cap K_2$  by a sweep-line algorithm. We assume, as is standard, an appropriate model of computation, in which various basic operations on the arcs forming the boundaries of the virtual obstacles (such as intersecting a pair of such arcs) can be performed in  $O(1)$  time. If an edge of  $K_1$  crosses another edge of  $K_2$ , then their crossing point is a vertex of  $K_1 \cap K_2$ ; and if an edge of  $K_1$  overlaps an edge of  $K_2$ , then the endpoints of their overlap are vertices of  $K_1$  or  $K_2$ , so the total time spent in the divide and merge steps is  $O((|K_\pi| + |K_1| + |K_2|) \log mn)$ , where  $|K_\pi|$ ,  $|K_1|$ , and  $|K_2|$  are the numbers of vertices of these respective sets. Let  $\kappa_\pi$  denote the total

number of vertices in all the intermediate unions of all recursive subproblems produced by the algorithm. (If a vertex  $\xi$  appears in  $k$  intermediate unions, then  $v$  is being counted  $k$  times.) The total time to compute  $K_\pi$ , for a fixed  $\pi$ , including the time spent in computing the virtual  $\pi$ -obstacles, is  $O((mn + \kappa_\pi) \log mn)$ .

Applying this procedure to each of the  $O(mn)$  contact surfaces independently and gluing the results together, we construct  $\partial K$  in time  $O((m^2n^2 + \sum_\pi \kappa_\pi) \log mn)$ , where the summation is taken over all contact surfaces. We will prove in Section 2.3 that the expected value of  $\sum_\pi \kappa_\pi$  is  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn) \log n)$ , which implies that the expected running time of the overall algorithm is  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn) \log mn \log n)$ . Hence, we can conclude:

**Theorem 2.1** *Given a convex polygon  $P$  with  $m$  edges and a polygonal environment  $Q$  with a total of  $n$  edges, we can compute the boundary of the entire free configuration space  $\mathcal{C}$  by a randomized algorithm in expected time  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn) \log mn \log n)$ .*

**Remark:** Given a collection of  $k$  convex polyhedra in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with a total of  $n$  faces, one can construct, using essentially the same reasoning, the boundary of their union in randomized expected  $O(k^3 \log n + nk \log k \log^2 n)$  time. This is a consequence of the fact, proven in [8], that the complexity of the union is  $O(k^3 + nk \log k)$ . If the polyhedra are obtained as Minkowski sums of some  $k$  disjoint convex polyhedra with a common convex polyhedron, the boundary of the union can be computed in randomized expected  $O(nk \log k \log^2 n)$  time. This is because the complexity of the union is now only  $O(nk \log k)$  [8, 9].

### 2.3 Bounding the expected value of $\sum_\pi \kappa_\pi$

In this section, we prove that the expected value of  $\sum_\pi \kappa_\pi$  is  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn) \log n)$ . For simplicity, assume that  $n$ , the total number of triangular obstacles, is of the form  $2^h + 1$  for some integer  $h$ . Any vertex  $\zeta$  that can appear on an intermediate union  $U$  produced by the algorithm, while computing  $K_\pi$  for some contact surface  $\pi = \pi_{e,v}$ , is either an endpoint of an edge of a virtual  $\pi$ -obstacle or an intersection of the boundaries of some pair of virtual  $\pi$ -obstacles. There are a total of  $O(m^2n^2)$  vertices of individual virtual  $\pi$ -obstacles, and each of them may be counted  $O(\log n)$  times in  $\sum_\pi \kappa_\pi$  (once at each level of recursion). Therefore it suffices to bound the number of intersection points between the boundaries of virtual obstacles. Let  $\zeta$  be such an intersection point. Suppose  $\pi$  is a portion of  $\partial K(\Delta_0)$  for some obstacle  $\Delta_0$ . Then  $\zeta$  represents a placement of  $P$  at which the following conditions hold:

- (a)  $P$  makes three simultaneous contacts with the obstacle boundaries, one of which is the contact  $(e, v, \Delta_0)$  defining  $\pi$  and no two contacts involve the same edge-vertex pair;
- (b)  $P$  is disjoint from the union of the obstacles  $\Delta$  whose corresponding virtual  $\pi$ -obstacles

participate in  $U$  and there is no other placement in a sufficiently small neighborhood of  $\zeta$  that satisfies the same three contacts; and

- (c)  $P$  is disjoint from  $\Delta_0$ .

Conditions (b) and (c) imply that  $P$  is openly disjoint from the three obstacles involved in the three contacts that  $P$  makes.

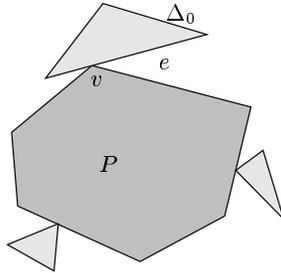


Figure 4: A triple-contact vertex.

A *triple-contact vertex*  $\zeta$  is a quadruple  $(Z, C_1, C_2, C_3)$ , where  $Z$  is a (not necessarily free) placement of  $P$  at which  $\partial P$  makes three simultaneous (vertex-edge or edge-vertex) contacts  $C_1, C_2$ , and  $C_3$ , each involving a distinct edge-vertex pair, and  $P$  is locally free in the sense that it does not intersect the obstacles corresponding to the three contacts and that no  $Z'$  in an sufficiently small neighborhood of  $Z$  satisfies the same property. Since the degree of each vertex of  $Q$  is bounded by a constant, each placement  $Z$  gives rise to  $O(1)$  triple-contact vertices. If the actual contacts are not important, we will not distinguish between  $\zeta$  and the corresponding placement  $Z$  of  $P$ . We say that a triple-contact vertex  $\zeta$  has *level*  $k$  (with respect to the full collection of obstacles) if removal of some  $k$  other obstacles (not containing the at most three that participate in the triple contact) causes  $\zeta$  to become a free placement, relative to the remaining obstacles, and no set of fewer than  $k$  obstacles has this property. Note that level-0 vertices are exactly the triple-contact vertices of  $\mathcal{C}$ .

If two contacts in a triple-contact vertex are formed by the same obstacle  $\Delta_i$ , then an edge of  $P$  must overlap an edge of  $\Delta_i$  at the corresponding placement, or a vertex of  $P$  must coincide with a vertex of  $\Delta_i$ . It is easily checked that the total number of such placements, regardless of their level, is  $O(m^2n^2)$  and that each of them is counted  $O(\log n)$  times in  $\sum_{\pi} \kappa_{\pi}$ . In what follows we will therefore consider only those triple-contact vertices at which each of the three contacts is made by a different obstacle.

Let  $F_k$  denote the number of level- $k$  (triple-contact) vertices for the given  $P$  and  $Q$ . For a level- $k$  vertex  $\zeta$ , let  $p_k$  denote the expected number of recursive subproblems of any size that contain  $\zeta$  in their output (we will momentarily prove an upper bound on  $p_k$  that does indeed depend only on  $k$  and not on the choice of  $\zeta$ ). Then the expected value of  $\sum_{\pi} \kappa_{\pi}$  is

easily seen to be

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{\pi} \kappa_{\pi} \right] = \sum_{k=0}^{n-3} F_k p_k.$$

We first obtain a bound on  $p_k$ . Note that, throughout its execution, the algorithm encounters sets of virtual obstacles of cardinality  $2^i$ , for  $i = 0, \dots, h$ . Fix one such  $i$ . Consider any three obstacles, and fix a triple-contact vertex  $\zeta$  of the free configuration space defined when only these three obstacles are present. What is the probability that  $\zeta$  occurs during the execution of the algorithm, for any contact surface  $\pi$ , while processing subproblems involving  $r = 2^i$  obstacles? The previous discussion implies that  $\zeta$  lies at the intersection of three contact surfaces. Fix one of these contact surfaces  $\pi$ . Suppose  $\zeta$  is a vertex at level  $k$ , with respect to the full set of obstacles. Then  $\zeta$  appears in some fixed subproblem involving  $r$  obstacles in the construction carried out within  $\pi$  if and only if these  $r$  obstacles include the other two obstacles defining  $\zeta$  and do not include any of the  $k$  obstacles that “cover”  $\zeta$ . Since every set of  $r$  obstacles not containing the obstacle inducing  $\pi$  has the same probability of being the set of input obstacles to our fixed subproblem, the probability of  $\zeta$  appearing in the output of the subproblem is  $\frac{\binom{n-3-k}{r-2}}{\binom{n-1}{r}}$ . (Recall that we ignore vertices that are determined by fewer than three obstacles; these vertices appear as vertices of some virtual  $\pi$ -obstacle, so we already have a bound on their number, as above.) Thus the expected contribution of a level- $k$  vertex  $\zeta$  to the output size of all subproblems during a run of the algorithm is

$$p_k \leq \sum_{i=0}^h 3 \cdot 2^{h-i} \frac{\binom{n-3-k}{2^i-2}}{\binom{n-1}{2^i}}.$$

Here we used the fact that  $\zeta$  may appear in the construction in each of the three different contact surfaces that define  $\zeta$ , and that, in any fixed recursive construction within  $\pi$ , there are  $2^{h-i}$  subproblems involving  $2^i$  obstacles each. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{\pi} \kappa_{\pi} \right] &\leq \sum_{k=0}^{n-3} \left( F_k \sum_{i=0}^h 3 \cdot 2^{h-i} \frac{\binom{n-3-k}{2^i-2}}{\binom{n-1}{2^i}} \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^h 3 \cdot 2^{h-i} \sum_{k=0}^{n-3} \frac{\binom{n-3-k}{2^i-2}}{\binom{n-1}{2^i}} F_k. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

To bound this sum, we let  $G(r)$  denote the expected number of level-0 vertices for  $P$  in an environment obtained by picking a random sample of  $r$  of the  $n$  triangular obstacles, where any subset of  $r$  obstacles is chosen with equal probability. We express  $G(r)$  in terms of  $F_k$ . What is the probability that a level- $k$  vertex  $\zeta$  defined by three contacts, as above, is counted in  $G(r)$ ? In other words, what is the probability that it corresponds to a vertex of

the free configuration space, in the environment defined by  $r$  randomly selected obstacles? It is defined by three obstacles and “covered” by  $k$  other obstacles, so, arguing as before, the probability is  $\frac{\binom{n-3-k}{r-3}}{\binom{n}{r}}$ . Thus, the expected number of free triple-contact vertices arising in the  $r$ -sample is

$$G(r) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-3} \frac{\binom{n-3-k}{r-3}}{\binom{n}{r}} F_k.$$

Putting  $r = 2^i + 1$ , we obtain

$$G(2^i + 1) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-3} \frac{\binom{n-3-k}{2^i-2}}{\binom{n}{2^i+1}} F_k = \frac{2^i + 1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-3} \frac{\binom{n-3-k}{2^i-2}}{\binom{n-1}{2^i}} F_k. \quad (2)$$

Substituting (2) into (1), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{\pi} \kappa_{\pi} \right] &\leq \sum_{i=0}^h 3 \cdot 2^{h-i} \frac{n}{2^i + 1} G(2^i + 1) \\ &= O(n^2) \cdot \sum_{i=0}^h \frac{G(2^i + 1)}{2^i(2^i + 1)}. \end{aligned}$$

Recall that each placement gives rise to  $O(1)$  triple-contact vertices, so  $G(2^i + 1)$  is proportional to the combinatorial complexity of  $\mathcal{C}$  for  $P$  moving amidst  $2^i + 1$  obstacles, which, as noted above, is known to be  $O(2^i m \lambda_6(2^i m))$  [23]. Therefore

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{\pi} \kappa_{\pi} \right] = O(n^2) \cdot \sum_{i=0}^h \frac{2^i m \lambda_6(2^i m)}{2^i(2^i + 1)} = O(mn \lambda_6(mn) \log n),$$

as claimed.

### 3 Motion-Planning Queries for $P$ in $Q$

In this section we describe data structures that answer efficiently the following two types of queries involving  $P$  and the polygonal environment  $Q$ :

**Free-placement query:** Is a given placement  $Z$  of  $P$  free with respect to  $Q$  (i.e., does  $Z \in \mathcal{C}$ )? If  $Z$  is free, then return a placement  $Z'$  that lies on  $\partial\mathcal{C}$  directly above  $Z$  in the  $(+y)$ -direction (i.e., return the first placement at which  $P$  touches an obstacle as we translate  $P$  from  $Z$  in the  $(+y)$ -direction).

**Motion-planning query:** Given two placements  $I$  and  $F$  of  $P$ , determine whether there is a collision-free path for  $P$  inside  $Q$  from  $I$  to  $F$  (i.e., whether  $I$  and  $F$  lie in the same connected component of  $\mathcal{C}$ ). If the answer is “yes,” then also return such a path for  $P$  from  $I$  to  $F$ . The first part of the query (to determine only whether  $F$  is reachable from  $I$ ) is called a *reachability query*.

Both types of queries call for a point-location data structure in the three-dimensional space  $\mathcal{C}$ . Since the topology of  $\mathcal{C}$  can be rather complicated, the known techniques, such as the point-location data structure by Preparata and Tamassia [28], do not seem to be directly applicable. We propose a different point-location data structure, tailored to our application. We first describe the data structure for free-placement queries and then extend it to answer reachability and motion-planning queries.

### 3.1 Free-placement queries

Let  $E$  be the set of obstacle edges (here we consider only the original edges of  $\partial Q$  and ignore the “inner passages” created by the triangulation of  $Q^c$ ). Recall that  $P(Z)$  denotes  $P$  at a placement  $Z$ . For a placement  $Z$  and for a subset  $E' \subseteq E$ , we define  $Z' = \sigma(Z, E')$  to be the first placement at which  $P$  intersects a segment of  $E'$  as we translate  $P$  from  $Z$  in the  $(+y)$ -direction (Figure 5); if  $P(Z)$  itself intersects an edge in  $E'$ , then  $\sigma(Z, E') = Z$ . For a given placement  $Z$ , we aim to determine whether  $Z$  is free, and if the answer is yes, we also want to return  $\sigma(Z, E)$ . To simplify the analysis, we assume that  $Q$  is bounded, so that  $\sigma(Z, E)$  always exists. If  $Q$  is unbounded, we artificially clip it within a sufficiently large square so that all placements of  $P$  at which  $P$  touches an obstacle vertex lie inside the square.

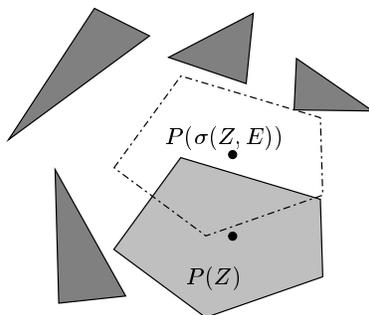


Figure 5: A placement  $Z$  of  $P$  and  $\sigma(Z, E)$ .

**Data structure.** We construct a segment tree  $T$  on the  $x$ -projections of the segments in  $E$ . Each node  $v \in T$  is associated with an interval  $\delta_v$ ; let  $W_v = \delta_v \times \mathbb{R}$  be the vertical strip

erected on  $\delta_v$ . Let  $p(v)$  denote the parent of a node  $v$ . An interval  $I$  is stored at a node  $v$  if  $\delta_v \subseteq I$  and  $\delta_{p(v)} \not\subseteq I$ . Let  $E_v \subseteq E$  be the set of segments corresponding to the intervals stored at node  $v$ , and let  $S_v \subseteq E$  denote the set of segments having at least one endpoint in the interior of  $W_v$ ; we clip the segments of  $S_v$  and  $E_v$  within  $W_v$ . We sort the segments of  $E_v$  in the increasing order of their heights, which is a well-defined order, since the endpoints of the (clipped) segments in  $E_v$  lie on the boundary of  $W_v$  and their relative interiors are pairwise disjoint.

We construct two data structures on  $S_v$ . The first structure answers line-intersection queries, i.e., queries that determine whether a line intersects any of the segments in  $S_v$ . We dualize each segment  $e \in S_v$  to a double wedge  $e^*$ , construct the arrangement of the resulting double wedges, preprocess the arrangement for planar point-location queries, and mark each face of the arrangement that is contained in at least one of the double wedges. The size of this data structure is  $O(|S_v|^2)$  and it can be constructed in time  $O(|S_v|^2 \log |S_v|)$ ; see, e.g., [1]. A line  $L$  intersects a segment of  $S_v$  if and only if the point dual to  $L$  lies in a marked face. This can be determined in  $O(\log |S_v|)$  time.

Next, we construct a two-level data structure on  $S_v$ . For each segment  $e \in S_v$ , we mark one of its endpoints; let  $A_v$  be the set of these points. We preprocess  $S_v$  into a halfplane range-searching data structure, using the algorithm by Chazelle et al. [13]. Their algorithm chooses a parameter  $r$  (larger than a prespecified constant) and constructs a family of *canonical subsets* of  $A_v$  so that there are  $O((|S_v|/r^j)^{2+\delta})$  canonical subsets of size between  $r^j$  and  $r^{j+1}$ , for any integer  $1 \leq j \leq \log_r n$ ; here  $\delta > 0$  is an arbitrarily small constant. For a query line  $L$ ,  $A_v$  can be partitioned into  $O(\log_r n)$  canonical subsets so that all points within each canonical set lie on the same side of  $L$ . This partition can be computed in  $O(\log n)$  time. For each canonical set, we construct the following second-level structure. Let  $A_{v,i}$  be the  $i$ th canonical subset,  $S_{v,i} \subseteq S_v$  the set of segments whose marked endpoints are in  $A_{v,i}$ , and  $V_{v,i}$  the set of all endpoints of the segments in  $S_{v,i}$ . We will use  $z = \tan \theta/2$  to denote the parametric representation of the orientation of  $P$ . For each segment  $e \in S_{v,i}$  and for every vertex  $p \in P$ , we define two partially defined bivariate functions  $y = f_{e,p}(x, z)$  and  $y = g_{e,p}(x, z)$  as follows: For a given pair  $(x_0, z_0)$  let  $y_0$  be the  $y$ -value so that, at the placement  $Z_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$ , the vertex  $p$  of  $P(Z_0)$  lies in the relative interior of  $e$  and  $P(Z_0)$  lies *below* (resp. *above*) the line containing  $e$ . If  $y_0$  exists then it is unique, and we put  $y_0 = f_{e,p}(x_0, z_0)$  (resp.  $y_0 = g_{e,p}(x_0, z_0)$ ); otherwise,  $f_{e,p}(x_0, z_0)$  (resp.  $g_{e,p}(x_0, z_0)$ ) is undefined. Next, for each endpoint  $\xi$  of a segment  $e$  in  $S_{v,i}$  and for every edge  $\gamma$  of  $P$ , we define two functions  $f_{\xi,\gamma}(x, z)$  and  $g_{\xi,\gamma}(x, z)$  as follows. For a given pair  $(x_0, z_0)$ , let  $y_0$  be the  $y$ -value so that at the placement  $Z_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$ , the vertex  $\xi$  lies on  $\gamma$  and both obstacle edges incident to  $\xi$  lie *above* (resp. *below*) the line supporting  $\gamma$ . If  $y_0$  exists then it is unique and we set  $y_0 = f_{\xi,\gamma}(x_0, z_0)$  (resp.  $y_0 = g_{\xi,\gamma}(x_0, z_0)$ ); otherwise the respective functions are undefined. We compute the lower envelope  $F_{v,i}$  of

$$\{f_{e,p} \mid e \in S_{v,i} \text{ and } p \text{ a vertex of } P\} \cup \{f_{\xi,\gamma} \mid \xi \in A_{v,i} \text{ and } \gamma \text{ an edge of } P\}$$

and the upper envelope  $G_{v,i}$  of

$$\{g_{e,p} \mid e \in S_{v,i} \text{ and } p \text{ a vertex of } P\} \cup \{g_{\xi,\gamma} \mid \xi \in V_{v,i} \text{ and } \gamma \text{ an edge of } P\}.$$

These envelopes can be computed and preprocessed in  $O((m|S_{v,i}|)^{2+\delta})$  time, for any  $\delta > 0$ , for point location, so that for any given pair  $(x_0, z_0)$ ,  $F_{v,i}(x_0, z_0)$  and  $G_{v,i}(x_0, z_0)$  can be computed in  $O(\log mn)$  time [4]. We store these envelopes as the secondary structures of the  $i$ th canonical subset. Choosing  $r = n^\delta$  and summing the complexity of these envelopes over all canonical subsets, the total size of the two-level data structure constructed on  $S_v$  is  $O((m|S_v|)^{2+\delta})$ . Summing over all nodes of the segment tree, the overall size of the data structure is  $O((mn)^{2+\delta})$ , for slightly larger but still arbitrarily small  $\delta > 0$ . The total time spent in constructing these structures is  $O((mn)^{2+\delta})$ .

**Answering a query.** Let  $Z_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$  be a query placement. We can determine in  $O(\log m)$  time the leftmost and rightmost vertices,  $\ell$  and  $r$ , of  $P(Z_0)$ . We can test in  $O(\log n)$  time whether  $\ell$  lies inside an obstacle. If so, we can conclude that  $Z_0$  is not a free placement. We can thus assume that  $\ell$  lies in  $Q$ . We use the following simple lemma to answer the query.

**Lemma 3.1** *Let  $Z_0$  be a placement so that  $P(Z_0)$  does not lie completely inside  $Q^c$ . If  $P(Z_0)$  intersects (resp. touches) an obstacle, then there exists a node  $v$  in the segment tree  $T$  so that at least one of  $\ell$  and  $r$  lies in  $W_{p(v)}$  and (at least) one of the following two conditions is satisfied.*

- (i)  $P(Z_0)$  intersects (resp. touches) a segment of  $E_v$ , or
- (ii)  $\ell$  and  $r$  do not lie in  $W_v$  and  $P(Z)$  intersects (resp. touches) a segment of  $S_v$ .

**Proof:** Suppose  $P(Z_0)$  intersects an obstacle. Since  $P(Z_0) \not\subseteq Q^c$ , there must exist an obstacle edge  $e$  that intersects  $P(Z_0)$ . Let  $\xi$  be an intersection point of  $e$  and  $P(Z_0)$ , and let  $u$  be the leaf of  $T$  whose strip  $W_u$  contains  $\xi$ . Let  $w$  be the unique ancestor of  $u$  so that  $e \in E_w$ . If  $\ell$  or  $r$  lies in  $W_{p(w)}$ , then condition (i) holds with  $v = w$ . Otherwise, let  $z$  be the lowest ancestor of  $w$  such that  $W_{p(z)}$  contains one of  $\ell$  or  $r$ . Since  $z$  is a proper ancestor of  $w$ ,  $e \in S_z$ . Hence condition (ii) holds in this case with  $v = z$ .

Let  $V_1 = \{v \in T \mid \ell \in W_{p(v)} \text{ or } r \in W_{p(v)}\}$  and  $V_2 = \{v \in V_1 \mid \ell, r \notin W_v\}$ . The above lemma suggests that it suffices to search  $E_v$  for all  $v \in V_1$  and  $S_v$  for all  $v \in V_2$ . Note that  $|V_2| \leq |V_1| = O(\log n)$ . For each node  $v \in V_1$ , we test whether  $P(Z_0)$  intersects a segment of  $E_v$ . We first compute the left and right endpoints,  $\ell^*$  and  $r^*$ , respectively, of  $W_v \cap \bar{\ell}r$ . We determine in  $O(\log n)$  time the segments  $e_\ell, e_r$  of  $E_v$  lying immediately above  $\ell$  and  $r$ , respectively. If  $e_\ell \neq e_r$ , then  $\ell^*r^*$ , and therefore  $P(Z_0)$ , intersects an obstacle edge and we stop. Otherwise, put  $e = e_\ell = e_r$  and determine in  $O(\log m)$  time a vertex

$\xi \in P(Z_0)$  on the top boundary of  $P(Z_0)$  that touches the supporting line of  $P(Z_0)$  parallel to  $e$ . If  $\xi$  lies above  $e$ , then  $P(Z_0)$  intersects  $e$  and therefore  $Z_0$  is not a free placement. Similarly we can determine in  $O(\log m)$  time whether  $P(Z_0)$  intersects the segment of  $E_v$  lying immediately below  $\ell^*r^*$ . If  $P(Z_0)$  does not intersect these segments of  $E_v$ , it avoids all segments of  $E_v$  (clipped within  $W_v$ ). We can then determine in  $O(1)$  time the placement  $Z_v = (x_0, y_1, z_0)$  so that the vertex  $\xi$  of  $P(Z_v)$  touches  $e$ ; if there is no such placement,  $y_1$  is set to  $+\infty$ . It is easily seen that  $Z_v = \sigma(Z_0, E_v)$ , provided  $P(Z_0)$  does not intersect any (clipped) segment of  $E_v$ . Repeating this step for all nodes of  $V_1$ , we can determine in  $O(\log mn \log n)$  time whether  $P(Z_0)$  intersects any segment of  $\bigcup_{v \in V_1} E_v$ ; if it does not, then we also obtain  $Z_1 = \sigma(Z_0, \bigcup_{v \in V_1} E_v)$ .

Next, for each node  $v \in V_2$ , we test whether  $P(Z_0)$  intersects any segment of  $S_v$ . We first determine in  $O(\log n)$  time whether the line  $L$  supporting the segment  $\ell r$  intersects any segment of  $S_v$ , using the line-intersection data structure. Since  $L \cap W_v = \ell r \cap W_v \subset P(Z_0) \cap W_v$ , we conclude that if  $L$  intersects  $S_v$ , then  $Z_0$  is not free, so we stop immediately. Otherwise, we query the halfplane range-searching data structure with  $L$ . Let  $S_{v,i}$  be one of the  $O(1)$  canonical subsets of the query output. If  $S_{v,i}$  lies *above* (resp. *below*)  $L$ , then  $P(Z_0)$  intersects some segment of  $S_{v,i}$  if and only if  $F_{v,i}(x_0, z_0) < y_0$  (resp.  $G_{v,i}(x_0, z_0) > y_0$ ). Hence, we can determine in  $O(\log mn)$  time whether  $P(Z_0)$  intersects any segment of  $S_{v,i}$ . If  $P(Z_0)$  does not intersect any segment of  $S_{v,i}$ , then  $(x_0, F_{v,i}(x_0, z_0), z_0) = \sigma(Z_0, S_{v,i})$ . Repeating this procedure for all canonical sets of the query output and for all nodes in  $V_2$ , we can determine in  $O(\log mn \log n)$  time whether  $P(Z_0)$  intersects any segment of  $\bigcup_{v \in V_2} S_v$ . If it does not, we also obtain  $Z_2 = \sigma(Z_0, \bigcup_{v \in V_2} S_v)$ . Now  $\sigma(Z_0, E)$  is the lowest of  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$ .

The query time can be improved to  $O(\log mn)$  by constructing the segment tree with a larger fan-out, e.g., as described in [13], without increasing the asymptotic size and preprocessing time. Omitting the technical details of this improvement, we summarize the analysis in the following theorem:

**Theorem 3.2** *Given a convex polygon  $P$  with  $m$  edges and a polygonal environment  $Q$  with a total of  $n$  edges, we can preprocess  $P$  and  $Q$  in time  $O((mn)^{2+\epsilon})$  into a data structure of size  $O((mn)^{2+\epsilon})$ , so that we can determine in  $O(\log mn)$  time whether a given placement  $Z_0$  is free. If  $Z_0$  is free, we can also compute  $\sigma(Z_0, E)$  within the same time bound, where  $E$  is the set of edges in  $Q$ .*

### 3.2 Reachability and motion-planning queries

Returning to the original motion-planning query problem, we show that the data structure given above and the algorithm described in Section 2 can be used to answer reachability queries efficiently. The idea is to “retract”  $\mathcal{C}$  onto a one-dimensional network connecting the vertices of  $\mathcal{C}$  and reduce the motion-planning problem to path planning in this network.

We preprocess  $P$  and  $Q$  for free-placement queries, using Theorem 3.2. Next, we compute all the connected components of  $\partial\mathcal{C}$ , using one of the algorithms described in Section 2.

These algorithms compute  $K_\pi$  for each contact surface  $\pi = \pi_{e,v}$ , and then glue them together. Actually, they compute a refinement  $\partial\mathcal{C}^*$  of  $\partial\mathcal{C}$  so that each two-dimensional face of  $\partial\mathcal{C}^*$  is  $x$ -monotone, which implies that there is a path along the edges of  $\partial\mathcal{C}^*$  between any pair of vertices of the same connected component of  $\partial\mathcal{C}^*$ . We preprocess each  $K_\pi$  for efficient planar point-location queries.

A natural choice for constructing the one-dimensional network is the 1-skeleton of  $\partial\mathcal{C}^*$ , but it is not sufficiently connected to capture the connectivity of  $\mathcal{C}$ , because the boundary of a connected component  $\mathcal{C}_i$  of  $\mathcal{C}$  need not be connected. Let  $K_i$  be a connected component of  $\partial\mathcal{C}_i$ , and let  $\zeta_i = (x_i, y_i, z_i)$  be a point on  $K_i$  with the maximum  $y$ -coordinate. We call  $K_i$  an *inner* component of  $\partial\mathcal{C}_i$  if  $\zeta_i^+ = (x_i, y_i + \varepsilon, z_i)$ , for sufficiently small  $\varepsilon > 0$ , lies in  $\mathcal{C}_i$ . We will refer to  $\zeta_i$  as the *apex* of  $K_i$ . If  $K_i$  is inner, then we may assume that a vertex  $p$  of  $P$  touches a vertex of  $Q$  at  $\zeta_i$ , so  $\zeta_i$  is either a vertex of  $K_i$  or a point of locally maximum  $y$ -coordinate on an edge of  $K_i$ . Furthermore, at  $P(\zeta_i)$  the reference point  $o$  lies vertically above the contact vertex  $p$ , i.e., the line segment  $\vec{p}o$  is parallel to the  $y$ -axis and oriented upwards. Hence, there are only  $O(mn)$  apex placements.

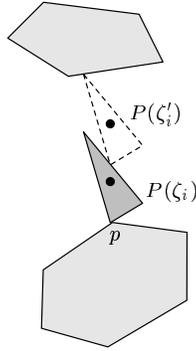


Figure 6: An apex placement.

Define  $\zeta_i' = \sigma(\zeta_i, E)$ , where  $E$  is the set of all obstacle edges, and let  $K_j$  be the connected component of  $\partial\mathcal{C}$  containing  $\zeta_i'$ . Obviously  $K_j$  also belongs to  $\partial\mathcal{C}_i$ . We can compute  $\zeta_i'$  in  $O(mn)$  time using a naive procedure. If  $\zeta_i$  is not a vertex of  $K_i$ , we add  $\zeta_i$  as a vertex of  $K_i$  and split the edge of  $K_i$  containing  $\zeta_i$ . Similarly, we add  $\zeta_i'$  as a vertex of  $K_j$  and split the edge, or the face, containing  $\zeta_i'$ . To split a face  $f$ , we pass through  $\zeta_i'$  an arc  $\gamma$  that lies on  $f$  and is normal to the  $y$ -axis, extend  $\gamma$  in both directions until it hits  $\partial f$ , and split the edges of  $f$  hit by  $\gamma$  at the hitting points. We also add the edge  $(\zeta_i, \zeta_i')$ . We repeat this procedure for all inner components of  $\partial\mathcal{C}$ . The total time spent in this step is  $O(m^2n^2)$ . This step connects together all the boundary components of each connected component of  $\mathcal{C}$ . Let  $\partial\mathcal{C}^{**}$  denote the resulting structure, and let  $G$  denote the 1-skeleton of  $\partial\mathcal{C}^{**}$ . The following property of  $G$  is obvious.

**Lemma 3.3** *If  $Z, Z'$  are two vertices of the same connected component of  $\mathcal{C}$ , then  $Z$  and*

$Z'$  belong to the same connected component of  $G$ .

We perform a depth-first search on  $G$  and identify all vertices that lie in the same connected component of  $G$ , so that we can determine in  $O(1)$  time whether two given vertices of  $G$  belong to the same connected component. Finally, we construct a spanning forest  $T$  of  $G$ , so that for any two vertices  $\zeta, \zeta'$  lying in the same connected component of  $G$ , we can return the path from  $\zeta$  to  $\zeta'$  in  $T$  in time proportional to its length.

We now answer a reachability or a motion-planning query as follows. Let  $I = (x_I, y_I, z_I)$  and  $F = (x_F, y_F, z_F)$  be two given placements. Using the free-placement data structure, we first determine whether both  $I$  and  $F$  are free. If so, we also compute  $I' = \sigma(I, E)$  and  $F' = \sigma(F, E)$ , and the contact surfaces  $\pi_I$  and  $\pi_F$  containing  $I'$  and  $F'$ , respectively. By locating  $I'$  in  $K_{\pi_I}$ , we can determine in  $O(\log mn)$  time the edge  $e_I$  that lies immediately above  $I'$  in the  $(+x)$ -direction. Let  $I''$  be the point on the edge  $e_I$  whose  $y$ -coordinate is  $y_I$ , let  $\gamma_I$  be the arc from  $I'$  to  $I''$  lying in  $K_{\pi_I}$  and normal to the  $y$ -axis, and let  $v_I$  be an endpoint of  $e_I$ . Similarly, we compute  $e_F, F'', \gamma_F$ , and  $v_F$  for the final placement  $F$ . Using Lemma 3.3, we can determine in  $O(1)$  time whether  $v_I$  and  $v_F$  belong to the same connected component of  $\partial\mathcal{C}$ .

If  $v_I$  and  $v_F$  belong to the same component, we can also compute a path from  $I$  to  $F$ . Let  $\Pi_I$  be the path composed of the vertical segment  $I'I''$ , the arc  $\gamma_I$ , and the portion of  $e_I$  from  $I''$  to  $v_I$ . Define  $\Pi_F$  in an analogous manner. Finally, let  $\Pi$  be the path in  $T$  from  $v_I$  to  $v_F$ . Then the path obtained by concatenating  $\Pi_I, \Pi$ , and  $\Pi_F$  is a path in  $\mathcal{C}$  from  $I$  to  $F$ . Hence, we obtain the following theorem.

**Theorem 3.4** *Given a convex polygon  $P$  with  $m$  edges and a polygonal environment  $Q$  with a total of  $n$  edges, we can preprocess, in additional  $O((mn)^{2+\epsilon})$  time, the (already computed) space  $\mathcal{C}$  of all free congruent placements of  $P$  inside  $Q$  into a data structure of size  $O((mn)^{2+\epsilon})$  so that, for any two query free placements  $I$  and  $F$  of  $P$ , we can determine, in  $O(\log mn)$  time, whether there exists a collision-free motion of  $P$  from  $I$  to  $F$ . If there exists one, we can return such a path in time proportional to its complexity, which is at most  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn))$ .*

## 4 Finding the Largest Placement of $P$

As mentioned in the introduction, we use the parametric-searching technique of Megiddo ([25]; see also [5, 7]) to compute a largest free similar placement of  $P$  inside  $Q$ . The parametric-searching paradigm requires an “oracle” procedure to determine, for a given scaling factor  $s > 0$  of  $P$ , whether  $\mathcal{C}_s$ , the free configuration space corresponding to  $sP$  amid  $Q$ , is nonempty. Using Theorem 2.1, we can obtain an oracle that performs this task in expected time  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn) \log mn \log n)$ . An efficient implementation of the parametric search, however, also requires a *parallel* implementation of the oracle, in Valiant’s

comparisons model [33]. Fortunately, the algorithm provided by Theorem 2.1 is easy to parallelize, because all recursive subproblems at the same depth can be performed in parallel. In fact, the only part of this algorithm that does not parallelize in a straightforward manner is the sweep-line procedure used in the merge step, because the standard implementation of line-sweeping is inherently sequential. We therefore perform the merge step in the parallel version using a different approach, based on segment trees, such as the one used in [7, Section 5]. As argued in [7], the merge step requires  $O(\log mn \log n)$  time using  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn) \log mn)$  processors, under Valiant's model of computation.

Omitting all further details, we conclude that one can compute  $\mathcal{C}$  in  $O(\log^2 mn)$  parallel steps, using  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn) \log mn)$  expected number of processors, in Valiant's comparison model. Megiddo [25] showed that if the sequential algorithm for the oracle runs in time  $T_s$  and the parallel algorithm runs in time  $T_p$  using  $\Pi$  processors, then the parametric searching takes  $O(T_p\Pi + T_s T_p \log \Pi)$  time, provided that all the control-flow decisions made by the parallel version can be expressed as sign tests of constant-degree polynomials in the parameter whose critical value is being sought (the scaling factor  $s$ , in our case), or are independent of this parameter. Since this is the case for our algorithm, we obtain the following result.

**Theorem 4.1** *Given a convex polygon  $P$  with  $m$  edges and a polygonal environment  $Q$  with a total of  $n$  edges, we can compute a largest free placement of  $P$  inside  $Q$  in randomized expected time  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn) \log^3 mn \log^2 n)$ .*

## 5 Concluding Remarks

In this paper we studied the motion-planning problem for a convex  $m$ -gon  $P$  inside a polygonal environment  $Q$  with a total of  $n$  vertices. We presented efficient algorithms for computing the entire free configuration space, whose time complexity is  $O(mn\lambda_6(mn) \log mn \log n)$ , which is near optimal in the worst case. We applied these algorithms to solve the following two problems:

- (a) answering motion-planning queries for  $P$  inside  $Q$ ,
- (b) finding a largest free placement of  $P$  inside  $Q$ .

We conclude with two open problems:

1. What is the combinatorial complexity of the four-dimensional configuration space of all free placements of  $P$  in  $Q$ , when scaling is also allowed? Is it also near-quadratic in  $mn$ ? See the introduction for the analogous result when  $Q$  is convex.
2. Agarwal and Sharir [6] gave a randomized algorithm, with  $O(n^{3/2+\varepsilon})$  expected running time, to find a placement of a longest segment that can be placed inside a simple  $n$ -gon. Can one also obtain subquadratic algorithms for finding a largest placement of

a segment inside an arbitrary polygonal environment, or for finding the largest copy of a given triangle that can be placed inside a convex polygon?

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