

# Algorithmic Enumeration of Surrounding Polygons

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## Abstract

We are given a set  $S$  of points in the Euclidean plane. We assume that  $S$  is in general position. A simple polygon  $P$  is a *surrounding polygon* of  $S$  if each vertex of  $P$  is a point in  $S$  and every point in  $S$  is either inside  $P$  or a vertex of  $P$ . In this paper, we present an enumeration algorithm of the surrounding polygons for a given point set. Our algorithm is based on reverse search by Avis and Fukuda and enumerates all the surrounding polygons in polynomial delay.

## 1 Introduction

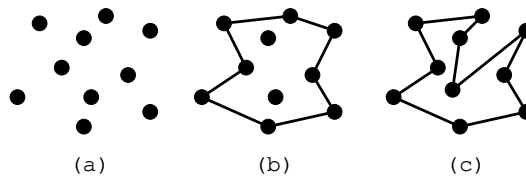
Enumeration problems are fundamental and important in computer science. Enumerating geometric objects are studied for triangulations [2, 3, 9], non-crossing spanning trees [9], pseudoline arrangements [20], non-crossing matchings [19], unfoldings of Platonic solids [8], and so on. In this paper, we focus on an enumeration problem of simple polygons of a given point set. We are given a set  $S$  of  $n$  points in the Euclidean plane. A *surrounding polygon* of  $S$  is a simple polygon  $P$  such that each vertex of  $P$  is a point in  $S$  and every point in  $S$  is either inside the polygon or a vertex of the polygon. A surrounding polygon  $P$  of  $S$  is a *simple polygonization*<sup>1</sup> of  $S$  if every point of  $S$  is a vertex of  $P$ . See Figure 1 for examples.

Simple polygonizations are studied from various perspectives. As for the counting, the current fastest algorithm was given by Marx and Miltzou [10], and it runs in  $n^{O(\sqrt{n})}$  time when a set of  $n$  points is given. It is still an outstanding open problem to propose a polynomial-time algorithm that counts the number of simple polygonizations of a given point set [12]. Much attention has been paid for combinatorial counting, too. A history on the lower and upper bounds is summarized by Demaine [4] and O'Rourke *et al.* [14]. Let  $b_P$  be the number of simple polygonizations of a point set  $P$ , and let  $b_n$  be the maximum of  $b_P$  among all the sets  $P$  of  $n$  points. The current best lower and upper bounds for  $b_n$  are  $4.64^n$  [5] and  $54.55^n$  [15], respectively.

Another research topic is a random generation of simple polygonizations. Since no polynomial-time counting algorithm is known for simple polygonizations, it seems to be a hard task to propose a polynomial-time algorithm that uniformly generates simple polygonizations. However, uniformly random generations are known for restricted classes:  $x$ -monotone polygons [21] and star-shaped polygons [16]. These uniform random generations are based

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<sup>1</sup> The simple polygonizations are also called spanning cycles, Hamiltonian polygons, and planar traveling salesman tours.



■ **Figure 1** (a) A point set  $S$ . (b) A surrounding polygon of  $S$ . (c) A simple polygonization of  $S$ .

on counting. For general simple polygonizations, heuristic algorithms are known [1, 17, 21]. Those algorithms efficiently generate simple polygons, but not uniformly at random.

On the other hand, nothing is known for the problem of enumerating all the simple polygonizations, as mentioned in [18]. A trivial enumeration is to generate all the permutations of given points, then output only simple polygonizations. However, this is clearly a time-consuming algorithm. It is an interesting and challenging question whether all the simple polygonizations of a given point set can be enumerated efficiently (for example, in output-polynomial time<sup>2</sup> or in polynomial delay<sup>3</sup>).

As the first step toward the question, we consider the problem of enumerating the surrounding polygons of a given point set  $S$ . From the definition, the set of surrounding polygons of  $S$  includes the set of simple polygonizations of  $S$ . We show that, for this enumeration problem, the reverse search by Avis and Fukuda [2] can be applied. First, we introduce an “embedding” operation: deleting a vertex from a surrounding polygons and putting it inside the polygon. Then, using this operation, we define a rooted tree structure among the set of surrounding polygons of  $S$ . We show that, by traversing the tree, one can enumerate all the surrounding polygons. The proposed algorithm enumerates them in polynomial delay.

Due to space limitation, all the proofs and some details are omitted.

## 2 Preliminaries

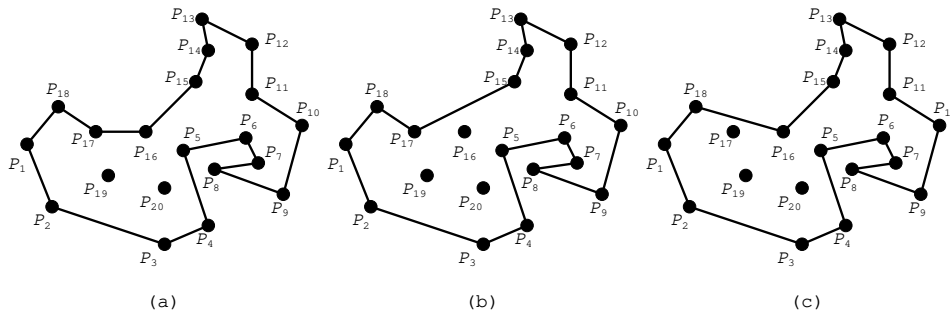
A *simple polygon* is a closed region of the plane enclosed by a simple cycle of edges. Here, a simple cycle means that two adjacent line segments intersect only at their common endpoint and no two non-adjacent line segments intersect. An *ear* of a simple polygon  $P$  is a triangle such that one of its edges is a diagonal of  $P$  and the remaining two edges are edges of  $P$ . The following theorem for ears is known.

► **Theorem 2.1** ([11]). *Every simple polygon with  $n \geq 4$  vertices has at least two non-overlapping ears.*

Let  $S$  be a set of  $n$  points in the Euclidean plane. We assume that  $S$  is in general position, i.e., no three points are collinear. The *upper-left point* of  $S$  is the point with the minimum  $x$ -coordinate. If a tie exists, we choose the point with the maximum  $y$ -coordinate among them. A *surrounding polygon* of  $S$  is a simple polygon such that every point in  $S$  is either inside the polygon or a vertex of the polygon. For example, the convex hull of  $S$  is a

<sup>2</sup> The running time of an enumeration algorithm  $A$  for an enumeration problem is *output-polynomial* if the total running time of  $A$  is bounded by a polynomial in the input and output size of the problem.

<sup>3</sup> The running time of an enumeration algorithm  $A$  for an enumeration problem is *polynomial-delay* if the delay, which is the maximum computation time between any two output, of  $A$  is bounded by a polynomial in the input size of the problem.



**Figure 2** (a) A surrounding polygon, where  $p_6, p_7, p_{11}, p_{14}, p_{15}, p_{16}$ , and  $p_{17}$  are embeddable. (b) The surrounding polygon obtained by embedding  $p_{16}$ . The point  $p_{16}$  is embedded inside the polygon. (c) The parent of the polygon in (a), which is obtained by embedding  $p_{17}$ .

surrounding polygon of  $S$ . Note that any surrounding polygon has the upper-left point in  $S$  as a vertex.

We denote by  $\mathcal{P}(S)$  the set of surrounding polygons of  $S$ , and denote by  $\text{CH}(S)$  the convex hull of  $S$ . We denote a surrounding polygon of  $S$  by a (cyclic) sequence of the vertices in the surrounding polygon. Let  $P = \langle p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k \rangle$  be a surrounding polygon of  $S$ . Throughout this paper, we assume that  $p_1$  is the upper-left point in  $S$ , the vertices on  $P$  appear in counterclockwise order, and the successor of  $p_k$  is  $p_1$ . Let  $p$  be a vertex of a surrounding polygon  $P$  of  $S$ . We denote by  $\text{pred}(p)$  and  $\text{succ}(p)$  the predecessor and successor of  $p$  on  $P$ , respectively.

### 3 Family tree

Let  $S$  be a set of  $n$  points in the Euclidean plane, and let  $\mathcal{P}(S)$  be the set of surrounding polygons of  $S$ . In this section, we define a tree structure over  $\mathcal{P}(S)$  such that its nodes correspond to the surrounding polygons. To define a tree structure, we first define the parent of a surrounding polygon using the “embedding operation” defined below. Then, using the parent-child relationship, we define the tree structure rooted at  $\text{CH}(S)$ .

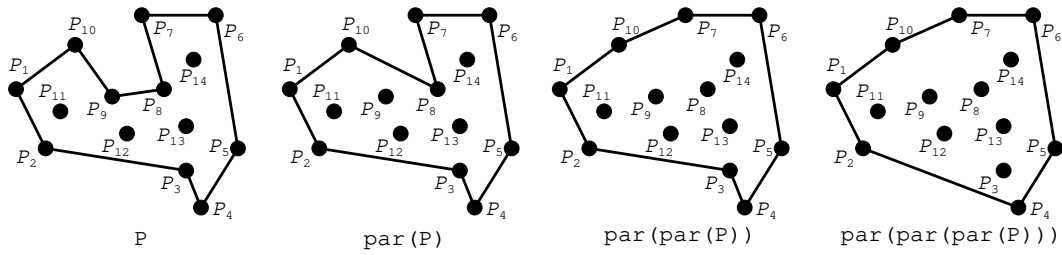
Now, we introduce some notations. Let  $P = \langle p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k \rangle$  be a surrounding polygon of  $S$ . Recall that  $p_1$  is the upper-left vertex on  $P$  and the vertices on  $P$  are arranged in the counterclockwise order. We denote by  $p_i \prec p_j$  if  $i < j$  holds, and we say that  $p_j$  is *larger than*  $p_i$ . The vertex  $p$  of  $P$  is *embeddable* if the triangle consisting of  $\text{pred}(p)$ ,  $p$ , and  $\text{succ}(p)$  does not intersect the interior of  $P$ . See examples in Figure 2(a). In the figure,  $p_6, p_7, p_{11}, p_{14}, p_{15}, p_{16}$ , and  $p_{17}$  are embeddable.

► **Lemma 3.1.** *Let  $S$  be a set of points, and let  $P$  be a surrounding polygon in  $\mathcal{P}(S) \setminus \{\text{CH}(S)\}$ . Then,  $P$  has at least one embeddable vertex.*

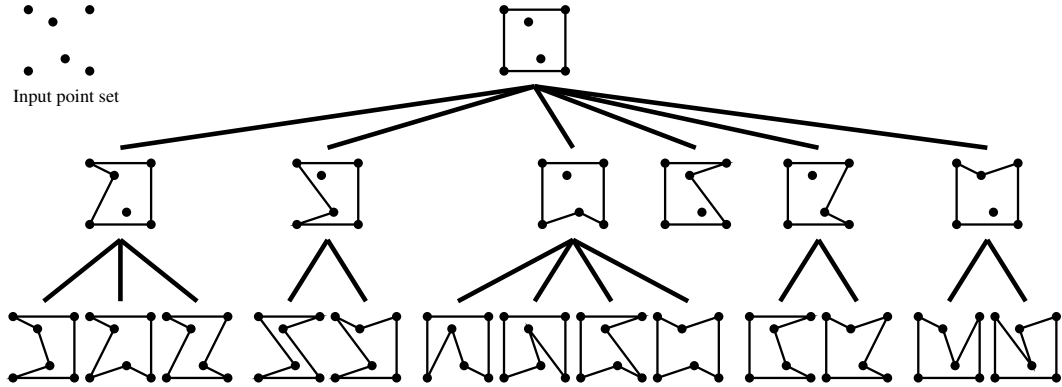
Now, let us define an operation that makes another surrounding polygon from a surrounding polygon. Let  $p$  be an embeddable vertex on  $P$ . An *embedding operation* is to remove the two edges  $(\text{pred}(p), p)$  and  $(p, \text{succ}(p))$  and insert the edge  $(\text{pred}(p), \text{succ}(p))$ . Intuitively, an embedding operation “embeds” a vertex into the interior of  $P$ . See Figure 2.

We denote by  $\text{larg}(P)$  the largest embeddable vertex on  $P$ . The *parent* of  $P$ , denoted by  $\text{par}(P)$ , is the polygon obtained by embedding  $\text{larg}(P)$  on  $P$ . Note that  $\text{par}(P)$  is also a surrounding polygon of  $S$ . By repeatedly finding the parents from  $P$ , we obtain a sequence of surrounding polygons. The *parent sequence*  $\text{PS}(P) = \langle P_1, P_2, \dots, P_\ell \rangle$  of  $P$  is a sequence of

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■ **Figure 3** A parent sequence.



■ **Figure 4** An example of a family tree.

surrounding polygons such that the first polygon is  $P$  itself and  $P_i$  is the parent of  $P_{i-1}$  for each  $i = 2, 3, \dots, \ell$ . See Figure 3. As we can see in the following lemma, the last polygon in a parent sequence is always  $\text{CH}(P)$ .

► **Lemma 3.2.** *Let  $S$  be a set of  $n$  points in the Euclidean plane, and let  $P$  be a surrounding polygon in  $\mathcal{P}(S) \setminus \{\text{CH}(S)\}$ . The last polygon of  $\text{PS}(P)$  is  $\text{CH}(S)$ .*

From Lemma 3.2, for any surrounding polygon, the last polygon of its parent sequence is the convex hull. By merging the parent sequences for all surrounding polygons in  $\mathcal{P}(S)$ , we have the tree structure rooted at  $\text{CH}(S)$ . We call such a tree the *family tree*. An example of the family tree is shown in Figure 4.

## 4 Enumeration algorithm

In this section, we present an algorithm that, for a given set  $S$  of  $n$  points, enumerates all the surrounding polygons in  $\mathcal{P}(S)$ . In the previous section, we defined the family tree among  $\mathcal{P}(S)$ . We know that the root of the family tree is the convex hull of  $S$ . Hence, we have the following enumeration algorithm. We first construct the convex hull of  $S$ . Then, we traverse the (implicitly defined) family tree with depth first search. This algorithm can enumerate all the surrounding polygons in  $\mathcal{P}(S)$ . To perform the search, we design an algorithm that finds all the children of any surrounding polygon of  $S$ . Starting from the root, we apply the child-enumeration algorithm recursively, and then we can traverse the family tree.

To describe how to construct children, we introduce some notations. Let  $P = \langle p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k \rangle$  be a surrounding polygon in  $\mathcal{P}(S)$ . For an edge  $(p_i, p_{i+1})$  of  $P$  and a point  $p$  inside  $P$ , we denote by  $P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)$  the polygon obtained by removing  $(p_i, p_{i+1})$  and inserting two edges

$(p_i, p)$  and  $(p, p_{i+1})$ . Intuitively, this operation is the reverse one of embedding operation. We call it a *dig operation*. Any child of  $P$  is described as  $P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)$  for some  $p$ ,  $p_i$ , and  $p_{i+1}$ . Hence, for all possible  $P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)$ , if we can check whether or not  $P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)$  is a child, then one can enumerate all the children. We have the following observation.

► **Lemma 4.1.** *Let  $P$  be a surrounding polygon of a set of points. For an edge  $(p_i, p_{i+1})$  of  $P$  and a point  $p$  inside  $P$ ,  $P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)$  is a child of  $P$  if*

- (1)  $P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)$  is a surrounding polygon of  $S$  and
- (2)  $\text{par}(P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)) = P$  holds.

Note that the condition (2) in Lemma 4.1 can be rephrased as follows:  $p$  is the largest embeddable vertex in  $P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)$ . Using the conditions in Lemma 4.1, we obtain the child-enumeration algorithm. For every possible  $P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)$ , we check whether or not  $P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)$  is a child of  $P$ . We apply the algorithm recursively starting from the convex hull. Thus, we can traverse the family tree. In this way, one can enumerate all the surrounding polygons. In each recursive call, there are  $O(n^2)$  child candidates  $P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)$ . We can check whether or not  $P(p_i, p_{i+1}; p)$  is a child in  $O(\log n)$  time using triangular range query [6] with  $O(n^2)$ -time preprocessing and  $O(n^2)$  additional space for an input point set and shortest path query [7] with  $O(n)$ -time preprocessing for each surrounding polygon. Thus, each recursive call takes  $O(n^2 \log n)$  time. Now we have the following theorem.

► **Theorem 4.2.** *Let  $S$  be a set of  $n$  points in the Euclidean plane. One can enumerate all the surrounding polygons in  $\mathcal{P}(S)$  in  $O(n^2 \log n |\mathcal{P}(S)|)$ -time and  $O(n^2)$  space.*

From the theorem above, one can see that our algorithm is output-polynomial. Using the even-odd traversal in [13], we have a polynomial-delay enumeration algorithm. In the traversal, the algorithm outputs polygons with even depth when we go down the family tree and output polygons with odd depth when we go up. See [13] for further details. We have the following corollary.

► **Corollary 4.3.** *Let  $S$  be a set of  $n$  points in the Euclidean plane. There is an  $O(n^2 \log n)$ -delay and  $O(n^2)$ -space algorithm that enumerates all the surrounding polygons in  $\mathcal{P}(S)$ .*

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