

# Optimal schedules for 2-guard room search

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## Abstract

We consider the problem of searching a polygonal room with two guards starting at a specified door point. While maintaining mutual visibility and without crossing the door, the guards must move along the boundary of the room and eventually meet again. We give polynomial time algorithms for finding a search schedule that minimizes the total distance travelled by the guards and for minimizing the time required for the search by solving  $L_1$  shortest path problems among curved obstacles in a polygon.

## 1 Introduction

The two-guard room search problem is a variation on the problem of searching for a mobile intruder inside a polygon, introduced in [14]. The present variation was first proposed by Park et al. [13] and involves two guards walking along the boundary of a polygonal region. Given a *room*  $(P, d)$  the guards start at point  $d$  (the *door*) on the boundary of polygon  $P$ , and they are allowed to walk along the boundary of the room, initially going in opposite directions, without ever crossing the door point. The goal is for the guards to maintain mutual visibility at all times and meet again somewhere else on the boundary of the room, at which point the whole room has been searched for a mobile intruder. We consider the problem of finding a *shortest* or *fastest search schedule* dictating the motion of the guards subject to these conditions.

The first paper on this problem [13] gave an  $O(n \log n)$  time algorithm to determine if a room can be searched. This was improved to  $O(n)$  by Bhattacharya et al. [1]. Neither paper considers the time or distance required to search the room.

In an earlier variant of the problem called “searching a corridor” the final meeting point of the guards is specified as well as the initial point, and the guards may not cross either of these points. Our room search problem is not solvable by testing all possible final meeting points, since there are rooms that can be searched only by allowing the guards to cross the final meeting point [13]. For searching a corridor, Icking and Klein [7] find a search schedule of minimum total length in time

$O(n \log n + k)$  where  $k \in O(n^2)$  is the size of the output. Our optimization approach is quite different.

There is also a wealth of research on versions of the problem with different numbers of guards and different types of visibility—see [8] and [10] for the case of one guard; Lavalley et al. [6] for “visibility-based pursuit-evasion” with multiple guards; and Efrat et al. [5] for a chain of  $k$  guards.

In this paper, we present an algorithm that will find optimal search schedules, if they exist, using two different notions of optimality: the shortest distance travelled and the shortest length of time required to search the room. The shortest distance schedule is found in  $O(n^2)$  time and the fastest schedule is found in  $O(n^4)$  time. This algorithm makes use of a search space that is a visibility diagram describing the valid positions for the two guards to maintain mutual visibility. The concept was first discussed in [8] and later modified by Zhang [15]. To maintain relevance to the current problem, we use the latter version, which assumes that two points on a single polygon edge are mutually visible. Our main lemma is that minimizing the distance (resp. time) of the room search schedule corresponds to minimizing the length of a path in the search space under the  $L_1$  (resp.  $L_\infty$ ) metric.

The rest of the paper is presented as follows. In section 2 we give the background information describing the visibility diagram, its relationship to the problem, and how to create it. In section 3, we relate paths in the visibility diagram to search schedules of the room and discuss optimality of search schedules. In section 4, we examine what types of curves can appear on the visibility diagram and we discuss how the visibility diagram can be constructed. In section 5, we discuss how to solve the shortest paths problems in the visibility diagram, giving the optimal schedules. Section 6 is a summary of the work presented here.

## 2 Preliminaries

For any room  $(P, d)$ , the *visibility diagram* [8] encodes, for any pair of points on the boundary of  $P$ , whether or not the points are mutually visible. We will consider a reduced visibility diagram from [1] as the *V-diagram*, containing the minimum amount of relevant information for the room search problem. The diagram’s boundary is a right triangle with the left and top sides equal in length to the perimeter of  $P$ . With the top left corner

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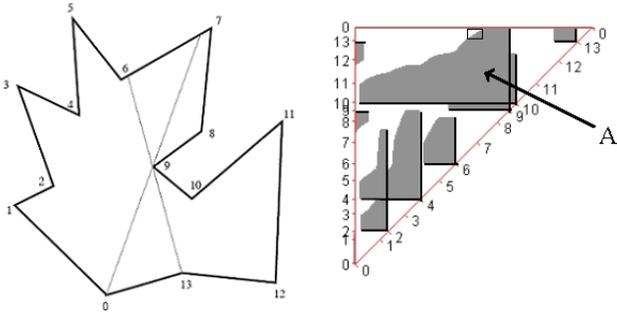


Figure 1: Room and its V-diagram from [1]

(0,0) representing  $d$ , the  $x$  (resp.  $y$ ) coordinate represents the distance along the border of  $P$  from the door in the clockwise (resp. counterclockwise) direction. Then we can associate any point  $(x,y)$  in the diagram with positions of the two guards on the border of  $P$ . To represent the mutual visibility of pairs of points, any point  $(x,y)$  in the V-diagram is shaded iff the corresponding positions are not mutually visible in the polygon. Figure 1 shows an example of this, where 0 is the door point. Any point on the diagonal corresponds to a meeting point of the two guards. Then any path  $\pi$  in the V-diagram from the top-left corner (the door) to the diagonal (the goal) that does not cross any shaded areas (obstacles) corresponds to a valid search schedule  $s$  of  $P$ ; we say that  $s = S(\pi)$ .

We will assume that each guard can travel independently at varying speeds in the range  $[0, 1]$  both forwards and backwards (without crossing the door point). For any search schedule  $s$ , let  $D(s)$  denote the distance travelled by the guards during  $s$ , and let  $T(s)$  denote the time required for  $s$ . It should be noted that minimizing each of these may result in different search schedules. Figure 2 shows an example of a room, with a door at 0, where the two notions of optimal schedule give two different search schedules. The shortest distance is achieved if one guard travels from 0 to 2, while the other guard waits at 5, resulting in a total distance travelled equal to 24 (the perimeter of the polygon). This schedule takes over 19 time units. The quickest search schedule involves one guard travelling along 0, 5, 4, 3, and 2 while the other guard must go from 0 to  $b$  and back to  $a$  to maintain mutual visibility. This requires backtracking from  $b$  to  $a$ , which results in a total distance travelled that is greater than 24, but it takes less than 15 time units to complete the entire search.

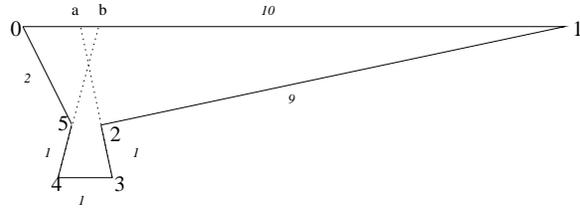


Figure 2: Optimal schedules are different

### 3 Correspondence Between Paths in the V-diagram and Search Schedules

The V-diagram can be used to construct optimal schedules for searching the room. We first describe a relationship between the length of a path in the V-diagram and the distance/time of the corresponding room search schedule.

**Lemma 1** *Let  $\pi$  be a path in the V-diagram for a room and  $s = S(\pi)$  be the corresponding search schedule of the room. Then  $|\pi|_1 = D(s)$  and  $|\pi|_\infty = T(s)$ .*

In order to prove this lemma we must define  $D(s)$  and  $T(s)$  more precisely. Let us first recall how the length of a curve is defined. A distance metric  $d(a,b)$  defines the distance between a pair of points  $a$  and  $b$ . This is the length of the line segment from  $a$  to  $b$ . The length of a general curve  $\pi = \pi(t), t \in [0, T]$  is defined to be  $\sup(\sum_{i=1}^k d(\pi(t_i), \pi(t_{i-1})))$  where the sup is taken over partitions  $t_0, \dots, t_k$  of  $[0, T]$ . We only consider *rectifiable* curves, which are defined as curves where the sup exists.

We define  $T(s)$  and  $D(s)$  in a similar fashion, first for straight line segments and then using a sup.

**Proof.** [Proof of Lemma 1] By the above clarification of the definition of  $D(s)$  and  $T(s)$  it suffices to prove the result for a path  $\pi$  that is a straight line segment.

In the  $L_1$  metric  $|\pi|_1 = |a-b|_1 = |(a-b)_x| + |(a-b)_y|$ . This represents the sum of the distances travelled by the two guards, so  $\pi_1 = D(s)$ .

In the  $L_\infty$  metric  $|\pi|_\infty = |a-b|_\infty = \max(|(a-b)_x|, |(a-b)_y|)$ . Since both guards have the same maximum speed of 1, assume that the guard travelling the greatest distance travels at speed 1 to minimize the time spent, which is then that guard's distance. We then have  $|\pi|_\infty = T(s)$ . □

**Corollary 2** *The search schedule requiring the shortest amount of distance to travel along the room boundary corresponds to the shortest path in the  $L_1$  metric from the door to the goal in the V-diagram. The quickest search schedule for a room  $(P, d)$  corresponds to the shortest path in the  $L_\infty$  metric from the door to the goal in the V-diagram.*

## 4 V-diagram Construction

We now discuss the nature of the V-diagram and how it is created.

**Theorem 3** *The border of each obstacle in the V-diagram is piecewise hyperbolic.*

**Proof.** The proof is included as an appendix.  $\square$

To construct the V-diagram we need to accurately describe all of the obstacles. To do this, we must, for each of the reflex vertices:

1. Find the two points at which the projections of the adjacent edges through the vertex first intersect the polygon again. This takes  $O(n)$  time.
2. Starting at one of these points and working along the polygon towards the reflex vertex, for each edge of the polygon that is encountered, find the curve of the V-diagram representing the pairs of points on the polygon that have a line of visibility through the reflex vertex. This takes  $O(n)$  time.

Therefore, with  $O(n)$  reflex vertices, the exact visibility diagram can be described in  $O(n^2)$  time.

## 5 Finding Shortest Paths in V-diagram

We have now reduced the problem of finding optimal search schedules with respect to distance and time to the problem of finding shortest paths in the  $L_1$  and  $L_\infty$  metrics among curved obstacles in the plane that are piecewise hyperbolic.

We note the following two properties of  $L_1$  and  $L_\infty$  shortest paths:

1. Between any two points there is a shortest  $L_1$  path that is rectilinear. This remains true in the presence of curved obstacles, except in the situation – that doesn't arise for us – where the shortest path travels between two abutting curved objects.
2. The  $L_1$  and  $L_\infty$  norms are related by a linear mapping; in particular we can find shortest  $L_\infty$  paths by rotating the plane and its obstacles by  $45^\circ$  and scaling, and then finding shortest  $L_1$  paths. This is justified in [9].

Thus it suffices to find shortest  $L_1$  paths, either among the original obstacles, or among the obstacles rotated by  $45^\circ$ .

There is considerable work on finding shortest  $L_1$  paths among polygonal obstacles in the plane [2, 12]. There is also work on “curvilinear” computational geometry [4] which has led to shortest path algorithms among “splinegons” [11]. However, there appears to

be no solution in the literature to finding shortest  $L_1$  paths among curved obstacles. There are two basic approaches to solving this problem. The continuous Dijkstra approach is used by Mitchell [12] for polygonal obstacles. Alternatively, the problem may be modelled as a graph shortest path problem [3]. The former approach will likely lead to a more efficient solution, but we will simply claim a polynomial time algorithm via modelling the problem on a graph.

**Lemma 4** *Between any two points there exists a shortest path among obstacles in the  $L_1$  metric such that the path intersects obstacle boundaries only at local  $x$  or  $y$  extreme points of the obstacles, and such that the portion of the path between two consecutive such points is monotone in  $x$  and  $y$ .*

**Proof.** The proof is included as an appendix.  $\square$

This lemma justifies creating a graph whose vertices are the extreme points of obstacles and whose edges correspond to monotone paths between pairs of points. We will in fact use a subset of these edges, not because it reduces the quadratic number of edges, but because it simplifies finding the edges. If there is a monotone path between two points then there is a *lowest* monotone path, the lower envelope of all monotone paths. A lowest monotone path is *minimal* if it does not go through an extreme point of an obstacle except at its endpoints. Observe that a non-minimal path is a concatenation of minimal paths.

This justifies restricting the edges of the graph to minimal lowest monotone paths between pairs of points. The weight of an edge is the  $L_1$  distance between the endpoints.

We add an additional vertex  $g$  to represent the goal line in the V-diagram, and the edges and edge weights are defined similarly with respect to any point on the goal line.

Let  $N$  be the number of vertices. Since there are  $O(n)$  barriers each with  $O(n)$  extreme points, thus  $N$  is  $O(n^2)$ . In the case where the obstacles are not rotated by  $45^\circ$  (the original  $L_1$  case) we obtain a tighter bound of  $N \in O(n)$  (see the appendix). The graph has  $O(N^2)$  edges.

We now show how to construct the graph. Find the extreme points of the obstacles, and the pieces of obstacle boundaries between extreme points. Note that these pieces are monotone. For each extreme point shoot rays downward and to the left and the right until we hit the first obstacle boundary piece encountered. We claim that this can all be done in  $O(N \log N)$  time using plane sweeps in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions.

Consider two extreme points  $\rho$  and  $\psi$ , with  $\rho$  higher. Suppose  $\psi$  is to the right of  $\rho$ .

**Claim 1** *There is a minimal lowest monotone path between  $\rho$  and  $\psi$  iff (1) the ray down from  $\rho$  meets the ray left from  $\psi$ , or (2) the two rays meet the same piece of obstacle boundary.*

**Proof.** The proof is included as an appendix.  $\square$

An analogous result holds in case  $\psi$  is to the left of  $\rho$ . We can test intersection of rays during the plane sweep. It remains to identify edges arising from condition (2). For any piece of obstacle boundary  $b$  let  $U$  be the set of extreme points whose downward ray hits  $b$ , let  $R$  be the set of extreme points whose leftward ray hits  $b$ , and let  $L$  be the set of extreme points whose rightward ray hits  $b$ . Note that  $R$  or  $L$  is empty. We add an edge between any pair  $\rho \in U$  and  $\psi \in R$  if  $\rho$  is above and to the left of  $\psi$ . We add an edge between any pair  $\rho \in U$  and  $\psi \in L$  if  $\rho$  is above and to the right of  $\psi$ . The number of edges is  $O(N^2)$  and we can output them in that time.

On the constructed graph, Dijkstra's algorithm finds a shortest path from the door vertex to  $g$  in  $O(N^2)$  time. From this we can recover a shortest path in the V-diagram and hence an optimal room search schedule.

## 6 Conclusion

We have shown how to use a visibility diagram of a room to create an optimal schedule to search the room with two guards. By solving a shortest  $L_1$  path problem among curved obstacles, a shortest distance schedule can be found in  $O(n^2)$  time and a fastest route schedule can be found in  $O(n^4)$  time. While this technique has not yielded remarkably fast running times, it is a novel approach that may be applicable to finding optimal schedules for other mobile guard problems.

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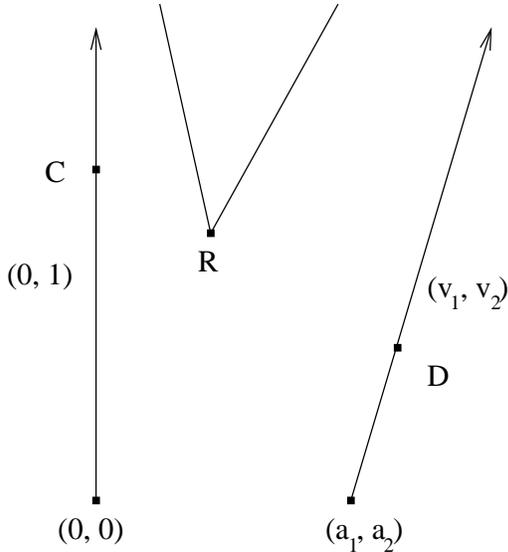


Figure 3: Reflex vertex

### A Proof of Theorem 3

We begin with an intermediate result.

**Lemma 5** *When a single reflex vertex obstructs visibility between two edges in the polygon, the curve on the corresponding region of a shaded portion of the V-diagram is hyperbolic.*

**Proof.** Without loss of generality, assume that one of the endpoints of one of the edges is  $(0, 0)$ , and the direction along that side is represented by the vector  $(0, 1)$ . Then let  $R = (r_1, r_2)$  be the reflex vertex, let  $(a_1, a_2)$  be one endpoint of the other edge, and let  $(v_1, v_2)$  be the normalized vector representing the direction along the other edge. Let  $C = (0, 0) + s(0, 1)$  be any point along the first edge and let  $D = (a_1, a_2) + t(v_1, v_2)$  be any point along the second edge. The barrier of the shaded region has a curve corresponding to the points along the edges where the visibility line along the edges goes through P (that is, when  $CR$  and  $DR$  are parallel). Then by treating the points as points in three dimensions, we can use the vector cross product to decide that two points along the edges give a point on this curve whenever

$$\begin{aligned}
 & CR \times DR = 0 \\
 \iff & (((0, 0) + s(0, 1)) - (r_1, r_2)) \times ((a_1, a_2) + t(v_1, v_2) - (r_1, r_2)) = 0 \\
 \iff & (-r_1, s - r_2) \times (a_1 + tv_1 - r_1, a_2 + tv_2 - r_2) = 0 \\
 \iff & -r_1a_2 - r_1tv_2 + sa_1 + stv_1 - sr_1 + r_2a_1 + r_2tv_1 = 0 \\
 \iff & -s(a_2 + tv_2 - r_2) = -r_1a_2 - r_1tv_2 + r_2a_1 + r_2tv_1 \\
 \iff & s = \frac{r_1a_2 + r_1tv_2 - r_2a_1 - r_2tv_1}{a_1 + tv_1 - r_1}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus the relationship between the movement along one edge and the movement of the projection of the line of sight along another edge of the polygon is given by the equation of a hyperbolic curve.  $\square$

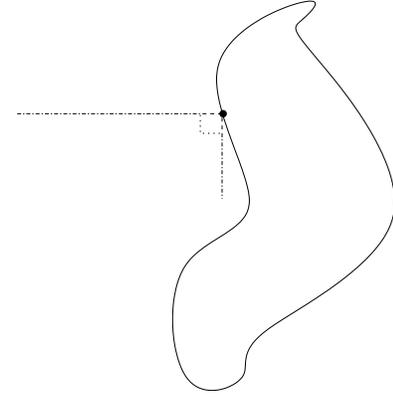


Figure 4: Intersection of path and obstacle

We now prove Theorem 3.

**Proof.** Each obstacle in the V-diagram is a union of *barriers*, where a barrier represents the guard positions blocked by one reflex vertex. A barrier has a horizontal and vertical side determined by the two edges adjacent to the reflex vertex [15]. The remainder of the barrier boundary is defined by the pairs of points on the polygon that are connected by a line that also goes through the reflex vertex. For example, obstacle A in Figure 1 is composed of two barriers, associated with reflex vertices 9 and 10. The box in the figure shows the portion of the barrier where vertex 9 would obstruct the view between guards on edges  $(6,7)$  and  $(0,13)$ .

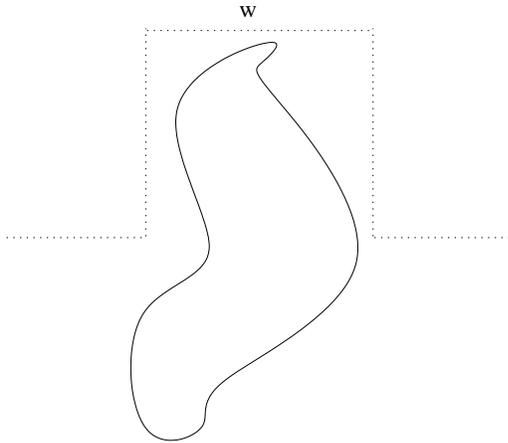
From the above lemma, we know that a single reflex vertex obstructing visibility between two edges of the polygon corresponds to a hyperbolic portion of a barrier in the V-diagram. When the endpoint of one edge is reached, a new edge is reached, so a new hyperbolic portion of the barrier is begun. So each obstacle is piecewise hyperbolic.  $\square$

### B Proof of Lemma 4

By note (1) at the beginning of section 5, there is a shortest path that is rectilinear. Suppose  $\pi$  is a shortest rectilinear path that contains obstacle intersection points that are not local extreme points. Let  $q = \pi(t)$  be the first such point on  $\pi$ .

If  $\pi$  does not change direction at  $q$  then  $q$  is a local extreme point. Otherwise  $\pi$  makes a right angle turn at  $q$ , and we can alter the path as shown in Figure 4. The revised path has the same length, and if the detour is small enough, the revised path intersects no obstacles. Applying this inductively yields the desired path.

Now suppose that the path is not monotone between two consecutive extreme points. Then, assuming the path does not backtrack on itself, somewhere on the path there are 3 consecutive segments such that the first

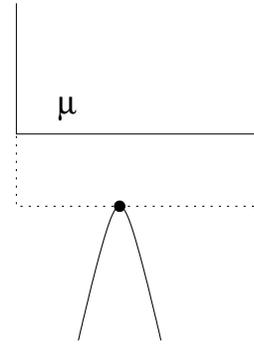
Figure 5: Shortest  $L_1$  subpaths between extreme points

and third go in opposite directions ( $w$  would be the second of these segments in Figure 5). Since there are no extreme points on the second segment, it can be translated so as to shorten the lengths of the first and third segments without intersecting any obstacles ( $w$  can be shifted down without hitting any obstacles). Thus the path can be shortened until an obstacle is hit, which happens at an extreme point. So any subpath between consecutive extreme points that is not direct in the  $L_1$  sense can be shortened. Therefore, the lemma is proven.

### C Justification of $N \in O(n)$ for the $L_1$ Case

We show that each barrier in the V-diagram of a simple polygon contains no more than 3 extreme points. With two adjacent straight edges on the border of the barrier, 3 extreme points are defined. The remainder of the barrier border is defined by pairs of points on the polygon boundary that are collinear with the reflex vertex, where the line segment between the pair of points does not intersect the polygon anywhere else. We will show that no more extreme points lie along this part of the barrier.

Suppose there was an extreme point (i.e., a local maximum or minimum) on this part of the border. This would imply that for some point on the border of the barrier, there is more than one corresponding point on the barrier such that the points are collinear with the reflex vertex and the line segment between the two points intersects the border nowhere else. Clearly this is not possible, since the existence of more than one such point implies that one of the line segments intersects the border more than once. Thus no extreme points lie on the curved portion of the barrier. Therefore, there are at most 3 extreme points per barrier. Since each obstacle is composed of barriers, and there are at most  $O(n)$  barriers, therefore there are  $O(n)$  extreme points.

Figure 6: Right turn restrictions on desired path  $\mu$ 

### D Proof of Claim 1

**Proof.** ( $\Leftarrow$ ) If the ray down from  $\rho$  meets the ray left from  $\psi$ , then these rays define a minimal lowest monotone path between the two points.

If the two rays do not meet each other, but they meet the same piece of obstacle boundary, then these rays and the piece of obstacle boundary (with no extreme points on it) define a minimal lowest monotone path between the points.

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose there is a minimal lowest monotone path  $\mu$  between  $\rho$  and  $\psi$  but that the two rays meet different pieces of obstacle boundary (the two rays do not meet each other). Since  $\mu$  is a lowest monotone path, it is made up of segments that go straight down, straight right, or along the border of an obstacle.

Now suppose further that at some point,  $\mu$  contains a direct turn to the right that does not lead directly to  $\psi$  (that is, the horizontal segment following the turn does not have  $\psi$  as an endpoint). Then  $\mu$  must change direction (at least slightly downward) at some later point; consider the subpath of  $\mu$  up to this point. Since  $\mu$  is minimal, this subpath does not meet an obstacle extreme point. But then the right turn could have happened later on  $\mu$  since the horizontal segment could be shifted down, as in figure 6. Thus  $\mu$  is not lowest.

So the only right turn that  $\mu$  may have must lead directly to  $\psi$ . Then all other parts of the path are downward segments and segments that follow obstacle boundaries. Note that there is a segment of  $\mu$  starting directly below  $\rho$  that follows an obstacle boundary since the rays from  $\rho$  and  $\psi$  do not meet each other. After this segment,  $\mu$  must turn right and go directly to  $\psi$  or turn down. If  $\mu$  turns right (towards  $\psi$ ), then it must have met an extreme point (and thus  $\mu$  is not minimal) since the rays do not meet the same piece of obstacle boundary. If  $\mu$  turns down, then it must do so at an extreme point in order for the path to be monotone, thus it is not minimal.

Therefore  $\mu$  does not exist, proving the claim.  $\square$