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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

Polygon Triangulation

1397-2



Motivation:

The Art Gallery Problem



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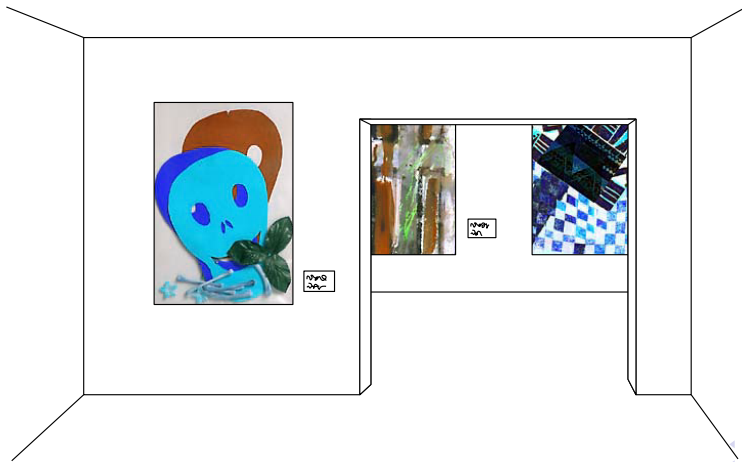
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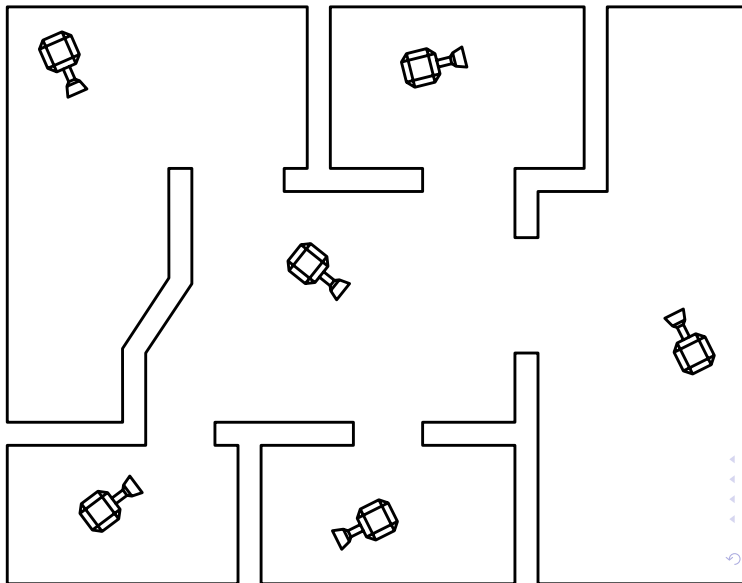
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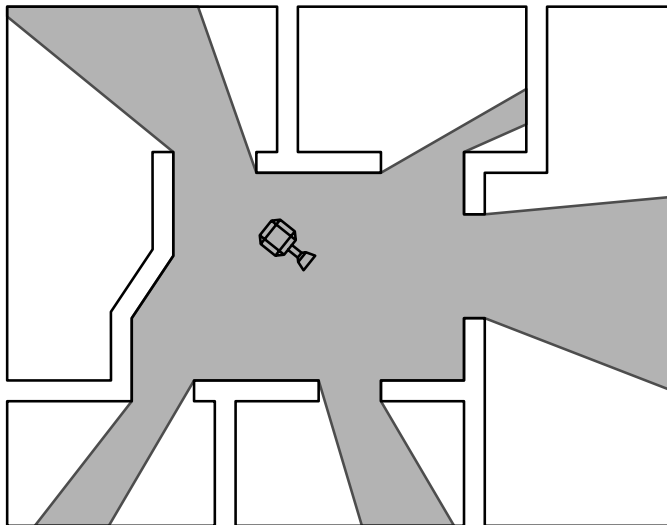
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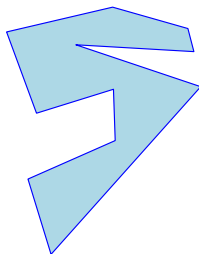
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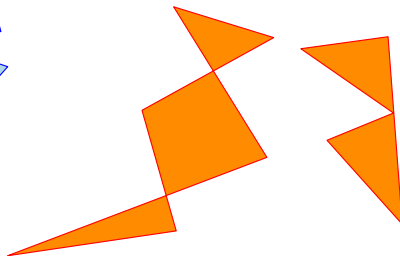
Triangulating Polygons

Definitions

- Simple polygon: Regions enclosed by a single closed polygonal chain that does not intersect itself.
- Question: How many cameras do we need to guard a simple polygon?
Answer: Depends on the polygon.
- One solution: Decompose the polygon to parts which are simple to guard.



Simple Polygon



Non-Simple Polygons



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The Art Gallery
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Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

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Monotone Pieces

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Polygon



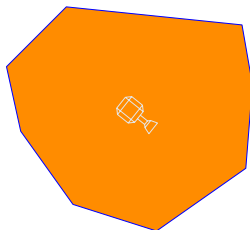
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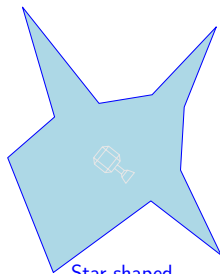
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Convex



Star-shaped



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The Art Gallery
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Triangulations

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Monotone Pieces

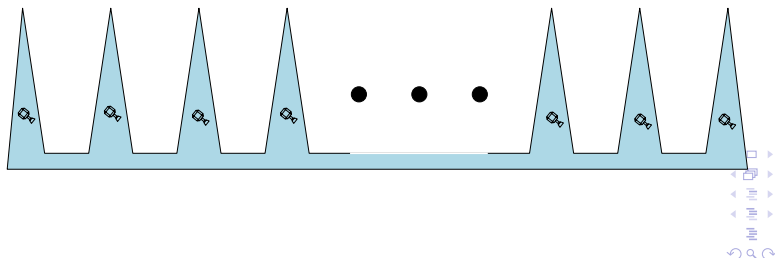
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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

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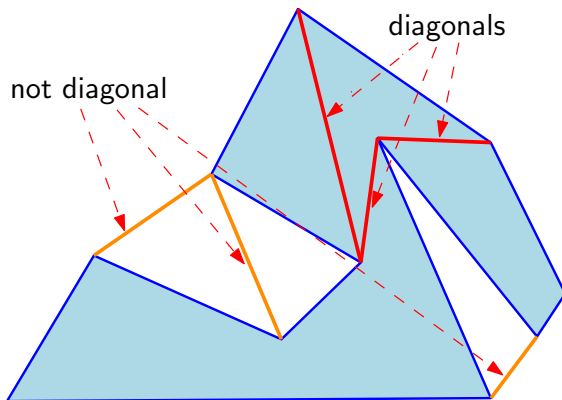
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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

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Monotone Pieces

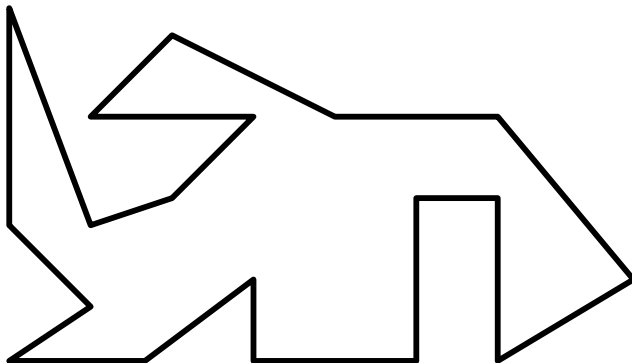
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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

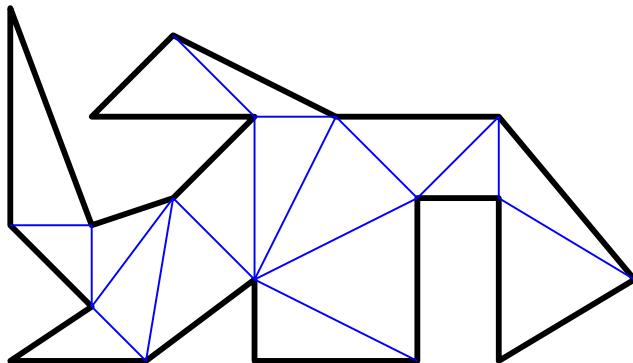
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The Art Gallery Problem

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Triangulations

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Monotone Pieces

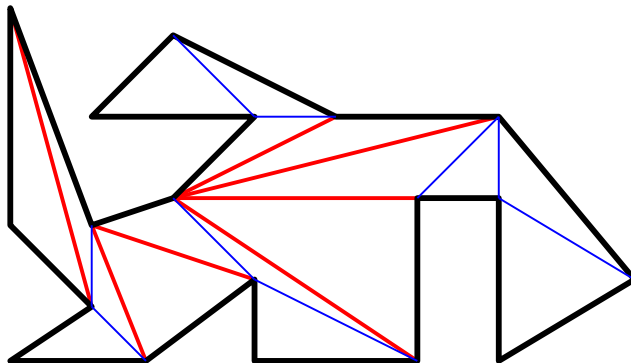
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Geometry

The Art Gallery Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

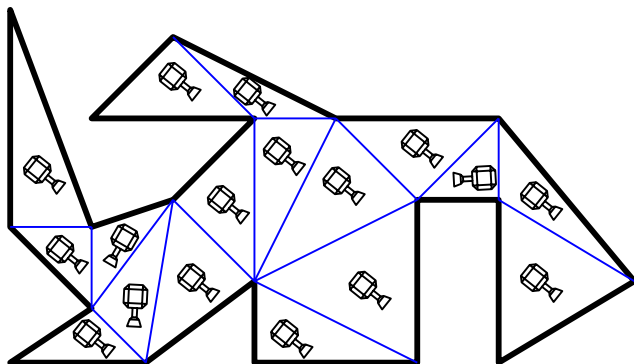
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Polygon



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Computational
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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
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Monotone Pieces

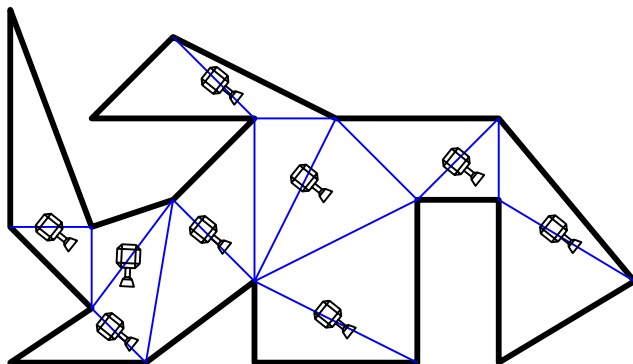
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Computational
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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
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Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

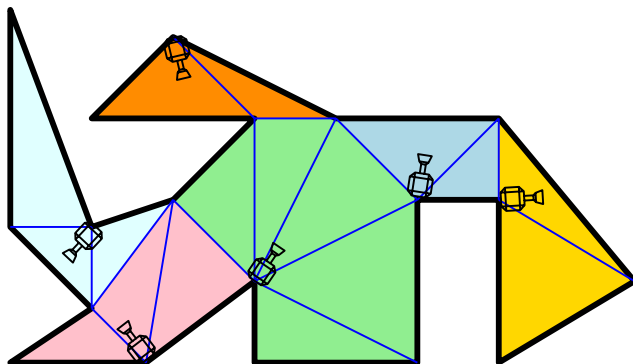
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Polygon



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Computational
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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
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Monotone Pieces

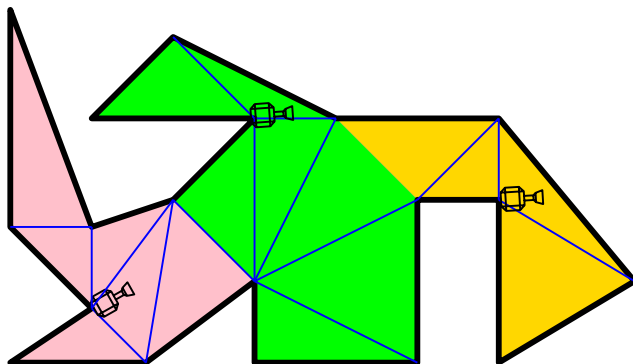
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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon





دانشگاه یزد
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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

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Polygon

Questions:

- Does a triangulation always exist?
- How many triangles can there be in a triangulation?

Theorem 3.1

Every simple polygon admits a triangulation, and any triangulation of a simple polygon with n vertices consists of exactly $n - 2$ triangles.

Proof. By induction.

Base Case: $n = 3$ (Obvious)

Case 1: Neighbors of v make
a diagonal.

Case 2: Otherwise.





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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
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Triangulations

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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
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Triangulations

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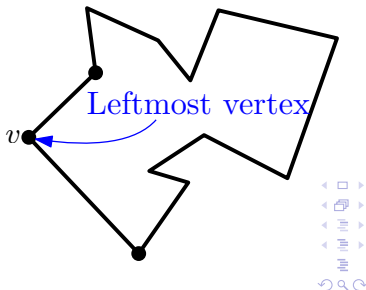
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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

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Monotone Pieces

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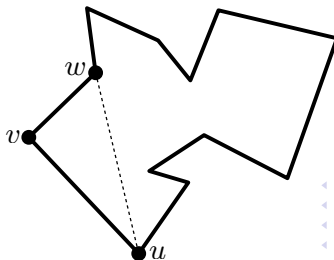
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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
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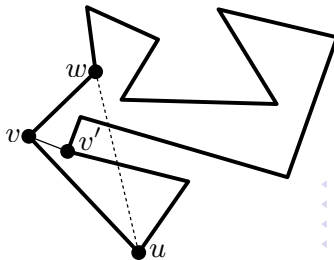
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Guarding a triangulated polygon

- $\mathcal{T}_P$: A triangulation of a simple polygon P .
- Select $S \subseteq$ the vertices of P , such that any triangle in $\mathcal{T}_P$ has at least one vertex in S , and place the cameras at vertices in S .
- To find such a subset: find a 3-coloring of a triangulated polygon.
- In a 3-coloring of $\mathcal{T}_P$, every triangle has a blue, a red, and a black vertex. Hence, if we place cameras at all red vertices, we have guarded the whole polygon.
- By choosing the smallest color class to place the cameras, we can guard P using at most $\lfloor n/3 \rfloor$ cameras.



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

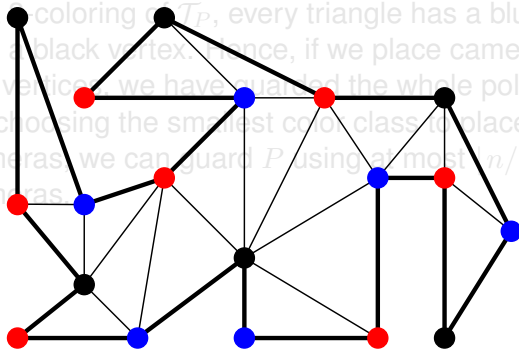
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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

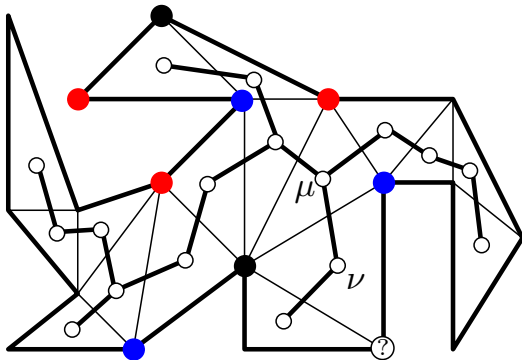
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Does a 3-coloring always exist?

Dual graph:

- This graph $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{T}_P)$ has a node for every triangle in $\mathcal{T}_P$.
- There is an arc between two nodes ν and μ if $t(\nu)$ and $t(\mu)$ share a diagonal.
- $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{T}_P)$ is a tree.



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

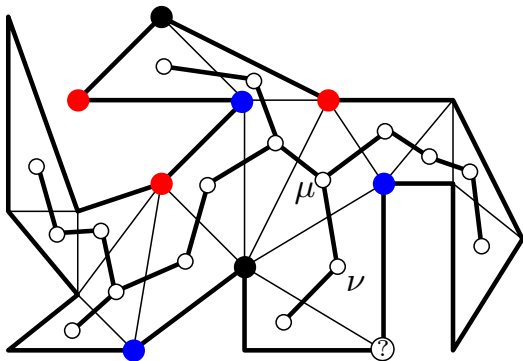
Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Does a 3-coloring always exist?

For 3-coloring:

- Traverse the dual graph (DFS).
- Invariant: so far everything is nice.
- Start from any node of $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{T}_P)$; color the vertices.
- When we reach a node ν in $\mathcal{G}$, coming from node μ .
Only one vertex of $t(\nu)$ remains to be colored.



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

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Monotone Pieces

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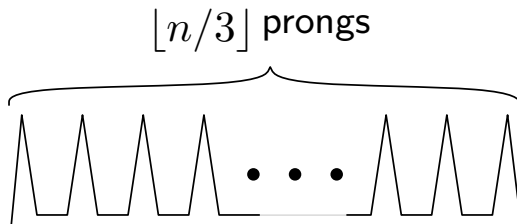
Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon





Theorem 3.2 (Art Gallery Theorem)

For a simple polygon with n vertices, $\lfloor n/3 \rfloor$ cameras are occasionally necessary and always sufficient to have every point in the polygon visible from at least one of the cameras.



The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



We will show:

How to compute a triangulation in $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ time.

Therefore:

Theorem 3.3

Let P be a simple polygon with n vertices. A set of $\lfloor n/3 \rfloor$ camera positions in P such that any point inside P is visible from at least one of the cameras can be computed in $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ time.



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Computational
Geometry

How can we compute a triangulation of a given polygon?

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulation algorithms

- A really naive algorithm: check all $\binom{n}{2}$ choices for a diagonal, each takes $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time. Time complexity: $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$.
- A better naive algorithm: find an ear in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time, then recurse. Total time: $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$.
- First non-trivial algorithm: $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ (1978).
- A long series of papers and algorithms in 80s until Chazelle produced an optimal $\mathcal{O}(n)$ algorithm in 1991.
- Linear time algorithm insanely complicated; there are randomized, expected linear time that are more accessible.
- Here we present a $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ algorithm.



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
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- Linear time algorithm insanely complicated; there are randomized, expected linear time that are more accessible.
- Here we present a $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ algorithm.



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Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulation algorithms

- A really naive algorithm: check all $\binom{n}{2}$ choices for a diagonal, each takes $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time. Time complexity: $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$.
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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon





Algorithm Outline

- 1 Partition polygon into monotone polygons.
- 2 Triangulate each monotone piece.

The Art Gallery Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

Monotone polygon

ℓ -monotone polygon

P is called monotone w. r. t. ℓ if $\forall \ell'$ perpendicular to ℓ the intersection of P with ℓ' is connected (a line segment, a point, or empty).

Definition:

- A point p is **below** another point q if $p_y < q_y$ or $p_y = q_y$ and $p_x > q_x$.



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

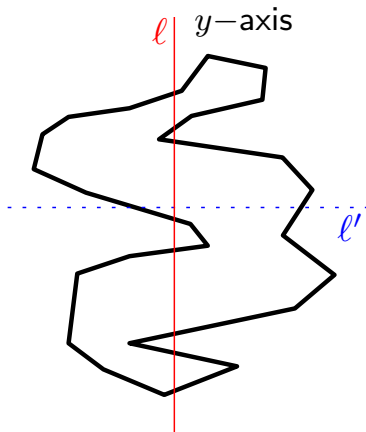
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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

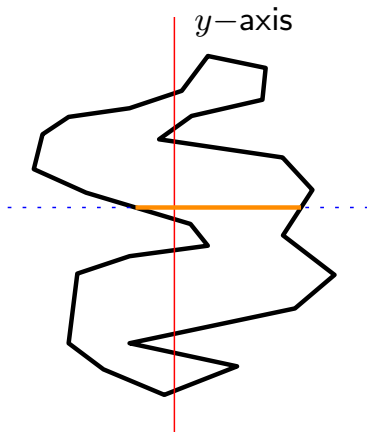
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Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

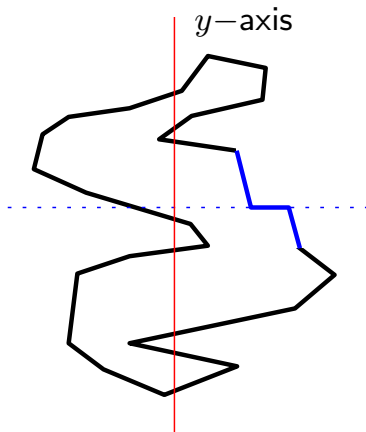
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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

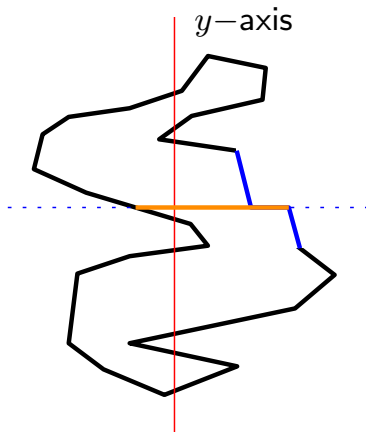
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Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

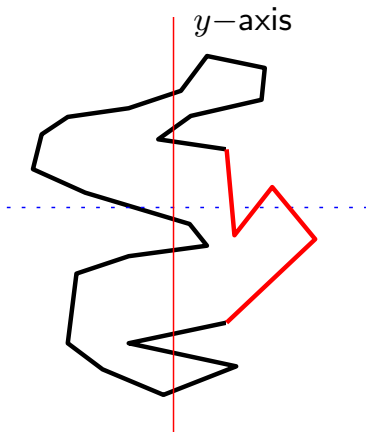
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Polygon



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

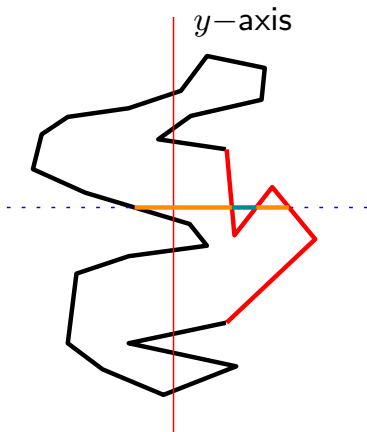
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Polygon



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Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Partition P into monotone pieces



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Computational
Geometry

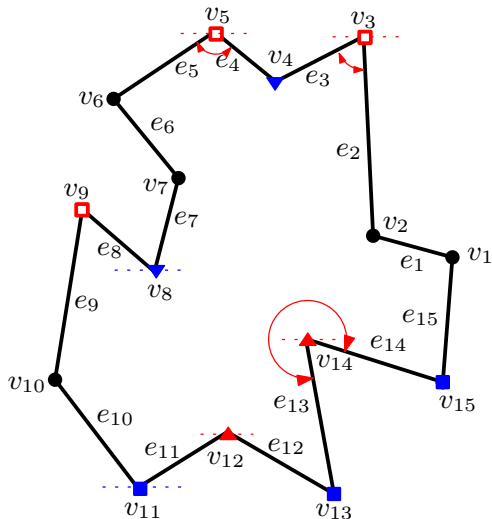
The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



□ =start vertex

■ =end vertex

● =regular vertex

▲ =split vertex

▼ =merge vertex



Partition P into monotone pieces

Lemma 3.4

If P has no split or merge vertices then it is y -monotone.

Proof. Assume P is **not** y -monotone. We show that it has an split or merge vertex.

By Lemma 3.4, P has been partitioned into y -monotone pieces once we get rid of its split and merge vertices.



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Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

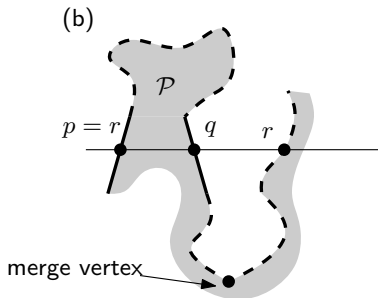
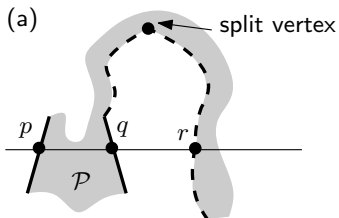


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Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

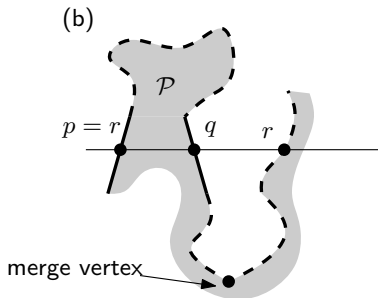
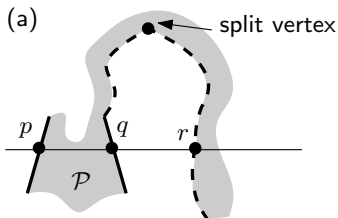


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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

Removing split/merge vertices:

Removing split vertices:

- A sweep line algorithm.
- Events: all the points
- Goal: To add diagonals from each split vertex to a vertex lying above it.
- $helper(e_j)$: Lowest vertex above the sweep line s. t. the horizontal segment connecting the vertex to e_j lies inside P .
- Connect split vertices to the helper of the edge to their left.



دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

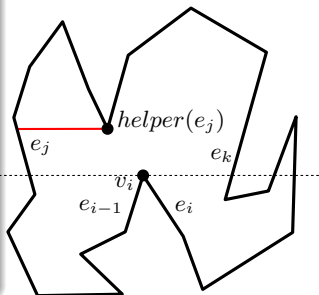
Triangulating a Monotone
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Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

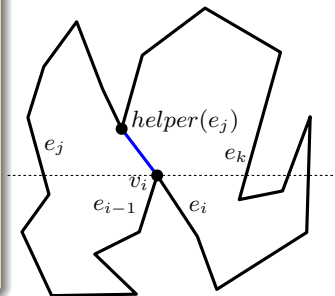
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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Removing split/merge vertices:

Removing merge vertices:

- Connect each merge vertex to the highest vertex below the sweep line in between e_j and e_k .
- But we do not know the point.
- When we reach a vertex v_m that replaces the helper of e_j , then this is the vertex we are looking for.



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

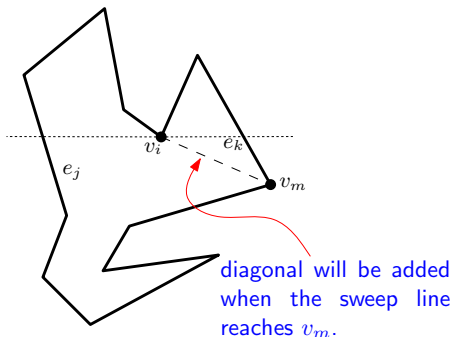
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Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon





For this approach, we need to find the edge to the left of each vertex. To do that:

- 1 We store the edges of P intersecting the sweep line in the leaves of a dynamic binary search tree $\mathcal{T}$.
- 2 Because we are only interested in edges to the left of split and merge vertices we only need to store edges in $\mathcal{T}$ that have the interior of P to their right.
- 3 With each edge in $\mathcal{T}$ we store its helper.
- 4 We store P in DCEL form and make changes such that it remains valid.



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Make Monotone Algorithm:

Algorithm MAKEMONOTONE(P)

Input: A simple polygon P stored in a DCEL $\mathcal{D}$.

Output: A partitioning of P into monotone subpolygons, stored in $\mathcal{D}$.

1. Construct a priority queue $\mathcal{Q}$ on the vertices of P , using their y -coordinates as priority. If two points have the same y -coordinate, the one with smaller x -coordinate has higher priority.
2. Initialize an empty binary search tree $\mathcal{T}$.
3. **while** $\mathcal{Q}$ is not empty
4. Remove the vertex v_i with the highest priority from $\mathcal{Q}$.
5. Call the appropriate procedure to handle the vertex, depending on its type.



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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

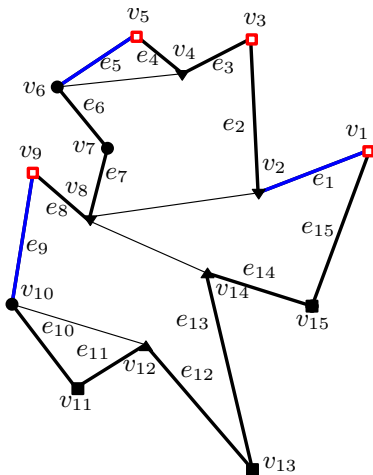
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Make Monotone Algorithm:

Algorithm HANDLESTARTVERTEX(v_i)

1. Insert e_i in $\mathcal{T}$ and set $helper(e_i)$ to v_i .



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

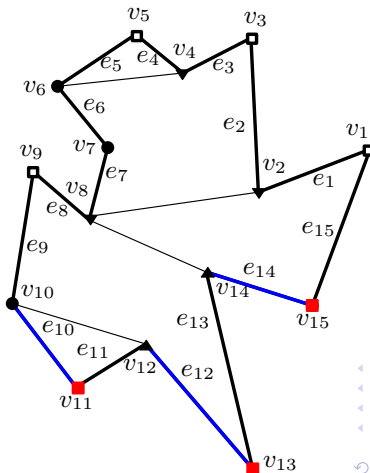
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Make Monotone Algorithm:

Algorithm HANDLEENDVERTEX(v_i)

1. **if** $helper(e_{i-1})$ is a merge vertex
2. **then** Insert the diagonal connecting v_i to $helper(e_{i-1})$ in $\mathcal{D}$.
3. Delete e_{i-1} from $\mathcal{T}$.



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Computational
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The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

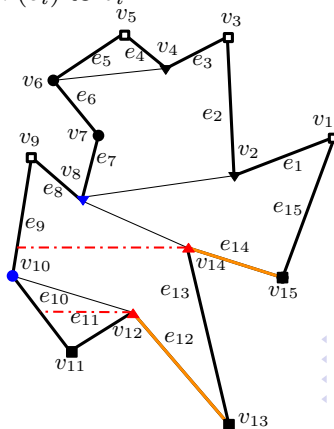
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Make Monotone Algorithm:

Algorithm HANDLE_SPLIT_VERTEX(v_i)

1. Search in $\mathcal{T}$ to find the edge e_j directly left of v_i .
2. Insert the diagonal connecting v_i to $helper(e_j)$ in $\mathcal{D}$.
3. $helper(e_j) \leftarrow v_i$.
4. Insert e_i in $\mathcal{T}$ and set $helper(e_i)$ to v_i .



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

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Guarding and Triangulations

Partitioning a Polygon into Monotone Pieces

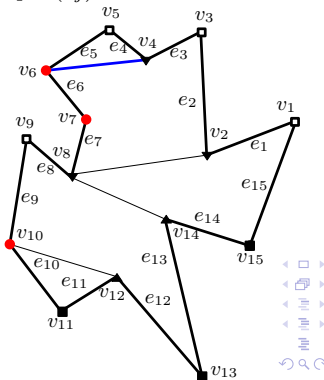
Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

-

Make Monotone Algorithm:

Algorithm HANDLEREGULARVERTEX(v_i)

1. **if** the interior of P lies to the right of v_i
2. **then if** $helper(e_{i-1})$ is a merge vertex
3. **then** Insert the diag. v_i to $helper(e_{i-1})$ in $\mathcal{D}$.
4. Delete e_{i-1} from $\mathcal{T}$.
5. Insert e_i in $\mathcal{T}$ and set $helper(e_i)$ to v_i .
6. **else** Search in $\mathcal{T}$ to find e_j directly left of v_i .
7. **if** $helper(e_j)$ is a merge vertex
8. **then** Insert the diag. v_i to $helper(e_j)$ in $\mathcal{D}$.
9. $helper(e_j) \leftarrow v_i$



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Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

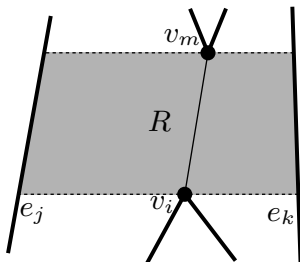
Lemma 3.5

Algorithm MAKEMONOTONE adds a set of non-intersecting diagonals that partitions P into monotone subpolygons.

Proof. (For split vertices) (other cases are similar)

- No vertex inside R .
- No intersection between $v_i v_m$ and edges of P .
- No intersection between $v_i v_m$ and previous diag.

R is empty, endpoints of previously added edges:
above v_i .



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

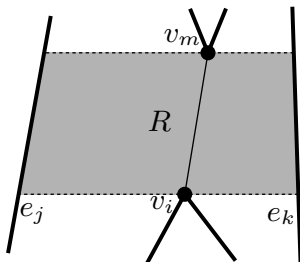


Lemma 3.5

Algorithm MAKEMONOTONE adds a set of non-intersecting diagonals that partitions P into monotone subpolygons.

Proof. (For split vertices) (other cases are similar)

- No vertex inside R .
 - No intersection between $v_i v_m$ and edges of P .
 - No intersection between $v_i v_m$ and previous diag.
- R is empty, endpoints of previously added edges: above v_i .



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Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



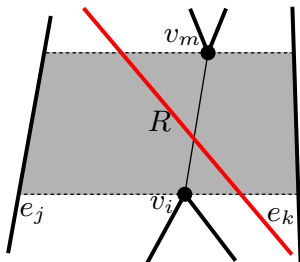
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Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



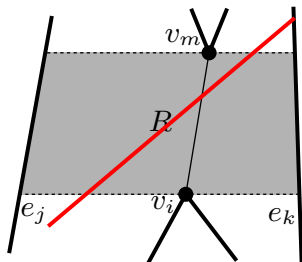
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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



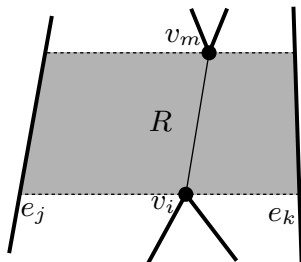
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دانشگاه یزد
Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon





Running time:

- Constructing the priority queue Q : $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time.
- Initializing $\mathcal{T}$: $\mathcal{O}(1)$ time.
- To handle an event, we perform:

Space Complexity:

The amount of storage used by the algorithm is clearly linear: every vertex is stored at most once in Q , and every edge is stored at most once in $\mathcal{T}$.



Running time:

- Constructing the priority queue Q : $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time.
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 - 2 at most one query on $\mathcal{T}$: $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ time.
 - 3 one insertion, and one deletion on $\mathcal{T}$: $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ time.
 - 4 we insert at most two diagonals into $\mathcal{D}$: $\mathcal{O}(1)$ time.

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Theorem 3.6

A simple polygon with n vertices can be partitioned into y -monotone polygons in $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ time with an algorithm that uses $\mathcal{O}(n)$ storage.

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

**Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon**

Triangulating a Monotone Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon



دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

Triangulation Algorithm:

- 1 The algorithm handles the vertices in order of decreasing y -coordinate. (Left to right for points with same y -coordinate).
- 2 The algorithm requires a stack S as auxiliary data structure. It keeps the points that handled but might need more diagonals.
- 3 When we handle a vertex we add as many diagonals from this vertex to vertices on the stack as possible.
- 4 Algorithm invariant: the part of P that still needs to be triangulated, and lies above the last vertex that has been encountered so far, looks like a funnel turned upside down.



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon



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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

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Triangulating a Monotone Polygon



دانشگاه یزد

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Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

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Triangulating a Monotone Polygon



دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

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Triangulating a Monotone Polygon



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Geometry

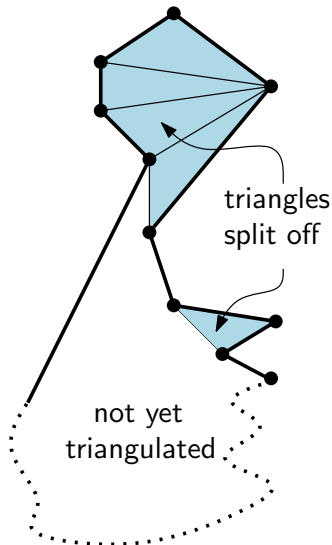
The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Case 1: v_j and top of stack on different chains



دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

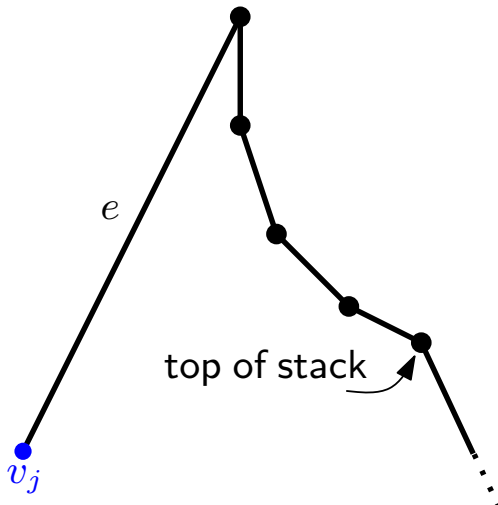
Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

**Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon**



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

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Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

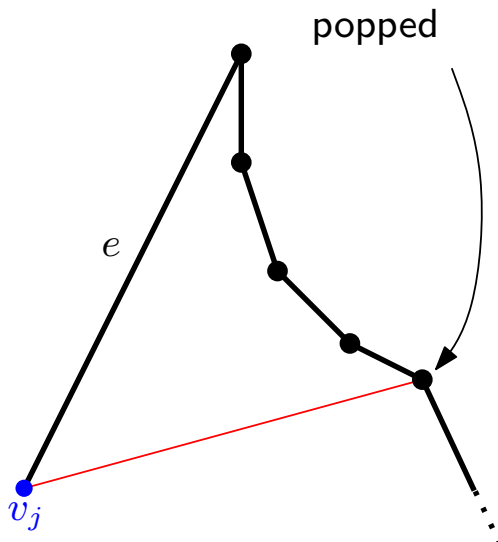
Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Case 1: v_j and top of stack on different chains



دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

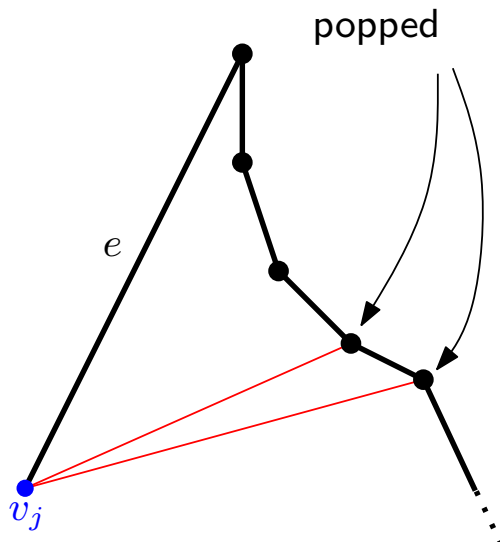
Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Case 1: v_j and top of stack on different chains



دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

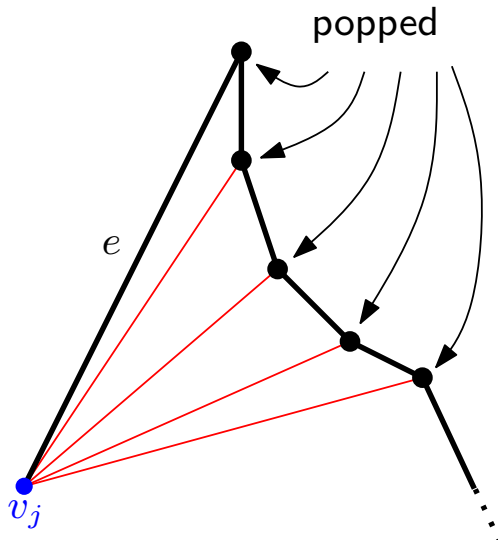
Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Case 1: v_j and top of stack on different chains



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Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

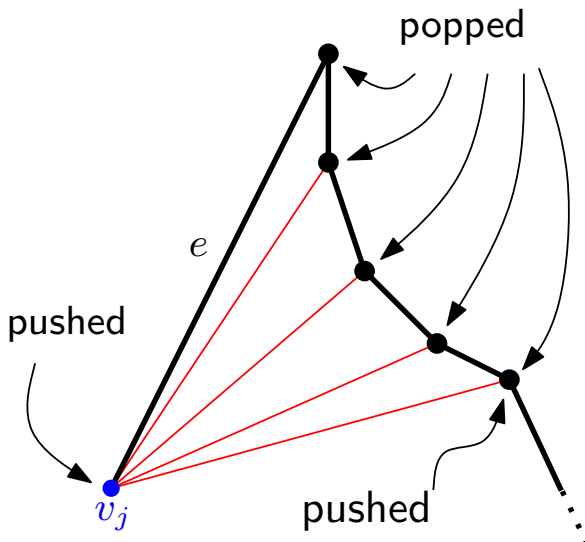
Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Case 1: v_j and top of stack on different chains



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Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

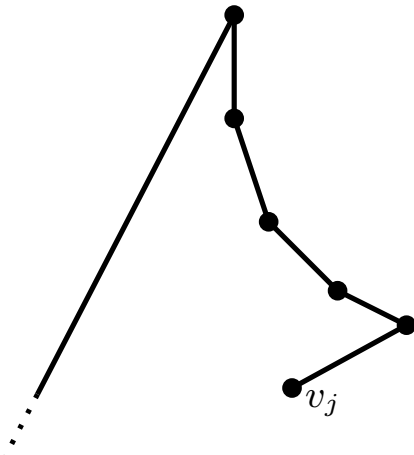
Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Case 2: v_j and top of stack on same chain



دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Case 2: v_j and top of stack on same chain



دانشگاه یزد

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Computational
Geometry

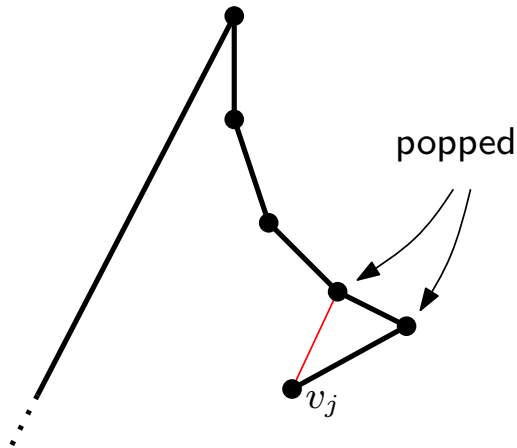
The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

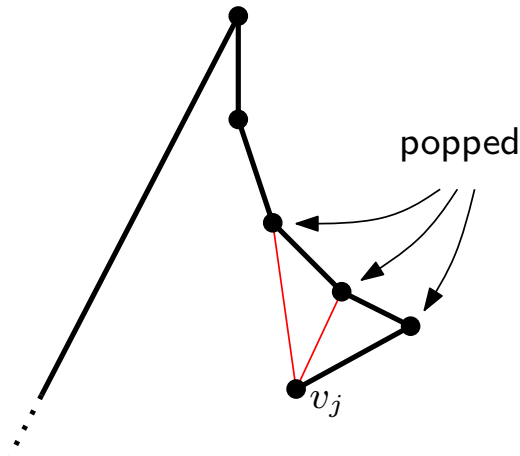
Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Case 2: v_j and top of stack on same chain



دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

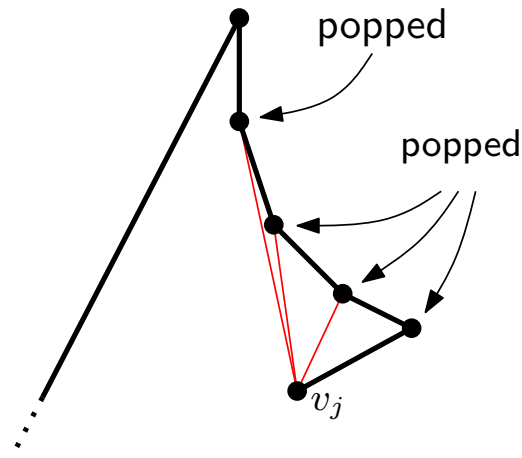
Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Case 2: v_j and top of stack on same chain



دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



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Computational Geometry

Guarding and
Triangulations

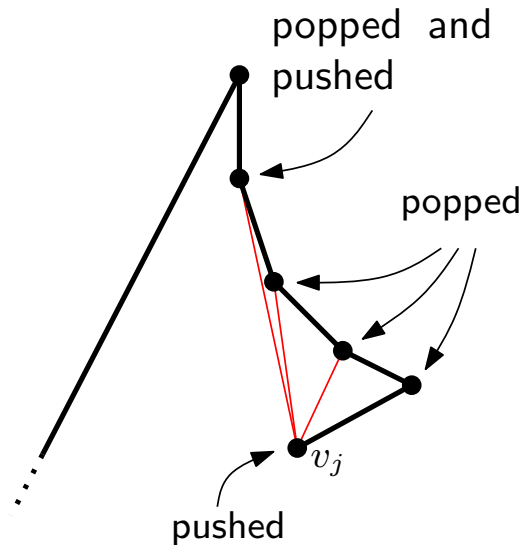
Partitioning a Polygon into Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Case 2: v_j and top of stack on same chain



دانشگاه یزد
Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

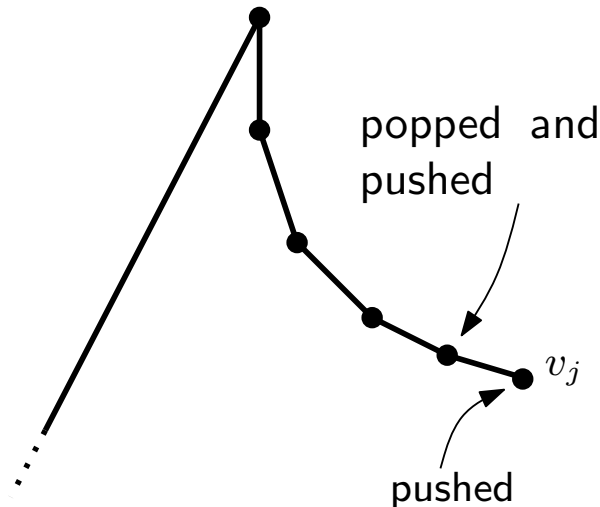
Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Case 2: v_j and top of stack on same chain



دانشگاه یزد
Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

Algorithm TRIANGULATEMONOTONEPOLYGON(P)

1. Merge the vertices on the left & right chain of P into one sequence, sorted on decreasing y -coordinate. Let $u_1, \dots, u_n$ denote the sorted sequence.
2. Initialize an empty stack S , and push u_1 and u_2 onto it.
3. **for** $j \leftarrow 3$ **to** $n - 1$
4. **if** u_j and the vertex on top of S are on different chains
5. **then** Pop all vertices from S .
6. Insert into $\mathcal{D}$ a diagonal from u_j to each popped vertex, except the last one.
7. Push u_{j-1} and u_j onto S .
8. **else** Pop one vertex from S .
9. Pop the other vertices from S as long as the diagonals from u_j to them are inside P . Insert these diagonals into $\mathcal{D}$. Push the last vertex that has been popped back onto S .
10. Push u_j onto S .
11. Add diagonals from u_n to all stack vertices except the first and the last one.

Time Complexity: Step 1: $\mathcal{O}(n)$, Step 2: $\mathcal{O}(1)$.

Steps 3-10: $\mathcal{O}(n)$



دانشگاه یزد
Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Triangulating a Monotone Polygon

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دانشگاه یزد
Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon





Theorem 3.8

A simple polygon with n vertices can be triangulated in $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ time with an algorithm that uses $\mathcal{O}(n)$ storage.

Generalizing to any planar subdivision

Theorem 3.9

A planar subdivision with n vertices in total can be triangulated in $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ time with an algorithm that uses $\mathcal{O}(n)$ storage.



دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

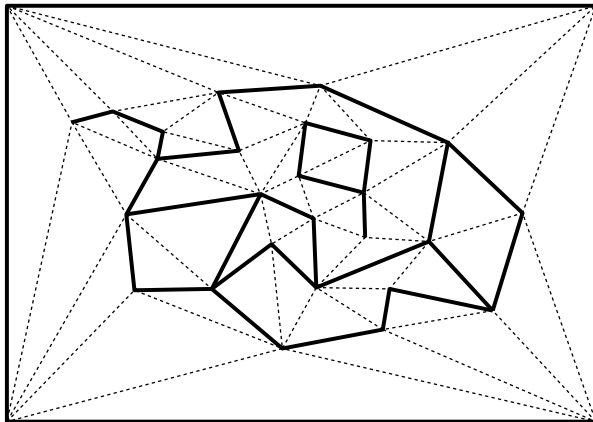
Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon



Generalizing to any planar subdivision

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دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon





دانشگاه یزد

Yazd Univ.

Computational
Geometry

The Art Gallery
Problem

Guarding and
Triangulations

Computing
triangulation

Partitioning a Polygon into
Monotone Pieces

Triangulating a Monotone
Polygon

END.

