Improved Approximation for Guarding Simple Galleries from the Perimeter*

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Abstract

We provide an $O(\log \log \text{OPT})$-approximation algorithm for the problem of guarding a simple polygon with guards on the perimeter. We first design a polynomial-time algorithm for building $\varepsilon$-nets of size $O(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \log \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon})$ for the instances of Hitting Set associated with our guarding problem. We then apply the technique of Brönnimann and Goodrich to build an approximation algorithm from this $\varepsilon$-net finder. Along with a simple polygon $P$, our algorithm takes as input a finite set of potential guard locations that must include the polygon’s vertices. If a finite set of potential guard locations is not specified, e.g. when guards may be placed anywhere on the perimeter, we use a known discretization technique at the cost of making the algorithm’s running time potentially linear in the ratio between the longest and shortest distances between vertices. Our algorithm is the first to improve upon $O(\log \text{OPT})$-approximation algorithms that use generic net finders for set systems of finite VC-dimension.

1 Introduction

1.1 The art gallery problem

In computational geometry, art gallery problems are motivated by the question, “How many security cameras are required to guard an art gallery?” The art gallery is modeled as a connected polygon $P$. A camera, which we will henceforth call a guard, is modeled as a point in the polygon, and we say that a guard $g$ sees a point $q$ in the polygon, and we call a set $G$ of points a guarding set if every point in $P$ is seen by some $g \in G$. Let $V(P)$ denote the vertex set of $P$ and let $\partial P$ denote the boundary of $P$. We assume that $P$ is closed and non-degenerate so that $V(P) \subseteq \partial P \subseteq P$.

We consider the minimization problem that asks, given an input polygon $P$ with $n$ vertices, for a minimum guarding set for $P$. Variants of this problem typically differ based on what points in $P$ must be guarded and where guards can be placed, as well as whether $P$ is simple or contains holes. Typically we want to guard either $P$ or $\partial P$, and our set of potential guards is typically $V(P)$.

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(vertex guards), $\partial P$ (perimeter guards), or $P$ (point guards). For results on art gallery problems not related to minimization problems we direct the reader to O’Rourke’s book [18], which is available for free online.

The problem was proved to be NP-complete first for polygons with holes by O’Rourke and Supowit [19]. For guarding simple polygons it was proved to be NP-complete for vertex guards by Lee and Lin [17]; their proof was generalized to work for point guards by Aggarwal [1]. This raises the question of approximability. There are two major hardness results. First, for guarding simple polygons, Eidenbenz [9] proved that the problem is APX-complete, meaning that we cannot do better than a constant-factor approximation algorithm unless $P = NP$. Subsequently, for guarding polygons with holes, Eidenbenz et al. [10] proved that the minimization problem is as hard to approximate as Set Cover in general if there is no restriction on the number of holes. It therefore follows from results about the inapproximability of Set Cover by Feige [11] and Raz and Safra [20] that, for polygons with holes, it is NP-hard to find a guarding set of size $o(\log n)$. These hardness results hold whether we are dealing with vertex guards, perimeter guards, or point guards.

Ghosh [13] provided an $O(\log n)$-approximation algorithm for guarding polygons with or without holes with vertex guards. His algorithm decomposes the input polygon into a polynomial number of cells such that each point in a given cell is seen by the same set of vertices. This discretization allows the guarding problem to be treated as an instance of Set Cover and solved using general techniques. This will be discussed further in Section 1.2. In fact, applying methods for Set Cover developed after Ghosh’s algorithm, it is easy to obtain an approximation factor of $O(\log \text{OPT})$ for vertex guarding simple polygons or $O(\log h \log \text{OPT})$ for vertex guarding a polygon with $h$ holes.

When considering point guards or perimeter guards, discretization is far more complicated since two distinct points will not typically be seen by the same set of potential guards even if they are very close to each other. Deshpande et al. [7] obtain an approximation factor of $O(\log \text{OPT})$ for point guards or perimeter guards by developing a sophisticated discretization method that runs in pseudopolynomial time. Efrat and Har-Peled [8] provided a randomized algorithm with the same approximation ratio that runs in fully polynomial expected time; their discretization technique involves only considering guards that lie on the points of a very fine grid.

Our contribution is an algorithm for guarding simple polygons, using either vertex guards or perimeter guards. Our algorithm has a guaranteed approximation factor of $O(\log \log \text{OPT})$ and the running time is polynomial in $n$ and the number of potential guard locations. This is the best approximation factor obtained for vertex guards and perimeter guards. If no finite set of guard locations is given, we use the discretization technique of Deshpande et al. and our algorithm is polynomial in $n$ and $\Delta$, where $\Delta$ is the ratio between the longest and shortest distances between vertices.

1.2 Guarding problems as instances of Hitting Set

1.2.1 Set Cover and Hitting Set

Set Cover is a well-studied NP-complete optimization problem. Given a universe $U$ of elements and a collection $S$ of subsets of $U$, Set Cover asks for a minimum subset $C$ of $S$ such that $\bigcup_{S \in C} S = U$. In other words, we want to cover all of the elements in $U$ with the minimum
number of sets from $S$. In general, Set Cover is not only difficult to solve exactly (see, e.g., [12]) but is also difficult to approximate—no polynomial time approximation algorithm can have an $o(\log n)$ approximation factor unless P = NP [20]. Conversely, a simple greedy heuristic\[3\] for Set Cover attains an $O(\log n)$ approximation factor. Another problem, Hitting Set, asks for a minimum subset $H$ of $U$ such that $S \cap H \neq \emptyset$ for any $S \in S$. Any instance of Hitting Set can easily be formulated as an instance of Set Cover and vice versa.

### 1.2.2 Set Systems of Guarding Problems

Guarding problems can naturally be expressed as instances of Set Cover or Hitting Set. We wish to model an instance of a guarding problem as an instance of Hitting Set. The desired set system $(U, S)$ is constructed as follows. $U$ contains the potential guard locations. For each point $p$ that needs to be guarded, $S_p$ is the set of potential guards that see $p$, and $S = \{S_p \mid p \in P\}$.

### 1.2.3 $\varepsilon$-Nets

Informally, if we wish to relax the Hitting Set problem, we can ask for a subset of $U$ that hits all heavy sets in $S$. This is the idea behind $\varepsilon$-nets. For a set system $(U, S)$ and an additive weight function $w$, an $\varepsilon$-net is a subset of $U$ that hits every set in $S$ having weight at least $\varepsilon \cdot w(U)$.

It is known that set systems of VC-dimension $d$ admit $\varepsilon$-nets of size $O\left(\frac{d}{\varepsilon} \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)$ [3] and that this is asymptotically optimal without further restrictions [16]. It is also known that set systems associated with the guarding of simple polygons with point guards have constant VC-dimension [14, 21]. Thus when guarding simple polygons we can construct $\varepsilon$-nets of size $O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)$ using general techniques. In a polygon with $h$ holes the VC-dimension is $O(\log h)$ [21] and therefore $\varepsilon$-nets of size $O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \log h\right)$ can be constructed.

Using techniques specific to vertex guarding or perimeter guarding a simple polygon, we are able to break through the general $\Theta\left(\frac{d}{\varepsilon} \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)$ lower bound to build smaller $\varepsilon$-nets. This result is stated in the following theorem.

**Theorem 1.** For the problem of guarding a simple polygon with vertex guards or perimeter guards, we can build $\varepsilon$-nets of size $O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \log \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)$ in polynomial time.

**Proof.** In Section 3 we introduce the basic ideas that allow the construction of $\varepsilon$-nets of size $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$. In Section 4 we give a more complicated, hierarchical technique that lets us construct $\varepsilon$-nets of size $O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \log \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)$. □

A similar result for a different problem was recently obtained by Aronov et al. [2], who proved the existence of $\varepsilon$-nets of size $O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \log \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)$ when $S$ is either a set of axis-parallel rectangles in $\mathbb{R}^2$ or axis-parallel boxes in $\mathbb{R}^3$.

### 1.2.4 Approximating Hitting Set with $\varepsilon$-Nets

Brönnimann and Goodrich [5] introduced an algorithm for using a net finder (an algorithm for finding $\varepsilon$-nets) to find approximately optimal solutions for the Hitting Set problem. Their algorithm gives weights (initially uniform\[4\]) to the elements in $U$. The net finder is then used to find

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\[2\] The heuristic repeatedly picks the set that covers the most uncovered elements.

\[3\] This bound also applies *a fortiori* to perimeter guards and vertex guards.

\[4\] Initial weights can be non-uniform but this is not necessary for our purposes.
an $\varepsilon$-net for $\varepsilon = 1/2c'$, with $c'$ fixed at a constant between 1 and $2 \cdot \text{OPT}$. If there is a set in $\mathcal{S}$ not hit by the $\varepsilon$-net, the algorithm picks such a set and doubles the weight of every element in it. It then repeats, finding a new $\varepsilon$-net given the new weighting. This continues until the algorithm finds an $\varepsilon$-net that hits every set in $\mathcal{S}$. If the net finder constructs $\varepsilon$-nets of size $f(1/\varepsilon)$, their main algorithm finds a hitting set of size $f(4 \cdot \text{OPT})$.

Previous approximation algorithms achieving guaranteed approximation factors of $\Theta(\log \text{OPT})$ \cite{7, 8} have used this technique, along with generic $\varepsilon$-net finders of size $O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)$ for set systems of constant VC-dimension. Instead, we use our net finder from Theorem 1 to obtain the following corollary, whose proof is given in Section 2.

**Corollary 1.** Let $P$ be a simple polygon with $n$ vertices and let $G$ be a set of potential guard locations such that $V(P) \subseteq G \subset \partial P$. Let $T \subseteq P$ be the set of points we want to guard. There is a polynomial-time algorithm that outputs a guarding set for $T$ of size $O(\text{OPT} \cdot \log \log \text{OPT})$, where $\text{OPT}$ is the size of the minimum subset of $G$ that guards $T$.

### 2 The Main Algorithm

#### 2.1 Main algorithm.

Our main algorithm is an application of that presented by Brönnimann and Goodrich \cite{5}. Their algorithm provides a generic way to turn a *net finder*, i.e. an algorithm for finding $\varepsilon$-nets for an instance of *Hitting Set*, into an approximation algorithm. Along with a net finder we also need a *verifier*, which either states correctly that a set $H$ is a hitting set, or returns a set from $\mathcal{S}$ that is not hit by $H$.

For the sake of completeness we present the entire algorithm here. $G$ is the set of potential guard locations and $T$ is the set of points that must be guarded. We first assign a weight function $w$ to the set $G$. When the algorithm starts each element of $G$ has weight 1. The main idea of the algorithm is to repeatedly find an $\varepsilon$-net $H$ and, if $H$ is not a hitting set (i.e. if it does not see everything in $T$), to choose a point $p \in T$ that is not seen by $H$ and double the weight of any guard that sees $p$.

#### 2.1.1 Bounding the number of iterations.

For now assume we know the value of $\text{OPT}$ and we set $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2\text{OPT}}$. We give an upper bound for the number of doubling iterations the algorithm can perform. Each iteration increases the total weight of $G$ by no more than a multiplicative factor of $(1 + \varepsilon)$ (since the guards whose weight we double have at most an $\varepsilon$ proportion of the total weight). Therefore after $k$ iterations the weight has increased to at most

$$|G| \cdot (1 + \varepsilon)^k \leq |G| \cdot \exp \left( \frac{k}{2 \cdot \text{OPT}} \right) \leq |G| \cdot 2^{\left(\frac{3k}{2 \cdot \text{OPT}}\right)}.$$ 

Let $H \subseteq G$ be an optimal hitting set (i.e. guarding set) of size $\text{OPT}$. For an element $h \in H$ define $z_h$ as the number of times the weight of $h$ has been doubled. Since $H$ is a hitting set, in each iteration some guard in $H$ has its weight doubled, so we have

$$\sum_{h \in H} z_h \geq k$$
and
\[
  w(\mathcal{H}) = \sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} 2^{z_h} \\
  \geq \text{OPT} \cdot 2^{\left(\frac{k}{\text{OPT}}\right)} \quad \text{(since } 2^x \text{ is a convex function).}
\]

We now have
\[
  \text{OPT} \cdot 2^{\left(\frac{k}{\text{OPT}}\right)} \leq w(\mathcal{H}) \leq \mid G \mid \cdot 2^{\left(\frac{3k}{4\text{OPT}}\right)},
\]
which gives us
\[
  k \leq 4 \cdot \text{OPT} \cdot \log \left(\frac{\mid G \mid}{\text{OPT}}\right).
\]

This bound also tells us that the total weight \(w(G)\) never exceeds \(\frac{\mid G \mid^4}{\text{OPT}^3}\).

We must now address the fact that the value of OPT is unknown. We maintain a variable \(c'\) which is our guess at the value of OPT, starting with \(c' = 1\). If the algorithm runs for more than \(4 \cdot c' \cdot \log \left(\frac{\mid G \mid}{c'}\right)\) iterations without obtaining a guarding set, this implies that there is no guarding set of size \(c'\) so we double our guess. When our algorithm eventually obtains a hitting set, we have \(\text{OPT} \leq c' \leq 2 \cdot \text{OPT}\). The hitting set obtained is a \(\left(\frac{1}{2c'}\right)\)-net build by our net finder. Therefore, using the method from Section 4 to build an \(\varepsilon\)-net of size \(O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \log \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\), we obtain a guarding set of size \(O(\text{OPT} \cdot \log \log \text{OPT})\).

### 2.1.2 Verification

The main algorithm requires a verification oracle that, given a set \(H\) of guards, either states correctly that \(H\) guards \(T\) or returns a point \(p \in T\) that is not seen by \(H\). We can use the techniques of Bose et al. [4] to find the visibility polygon of any guard in \(H\) efficiently. It will always be the case that \(\mid H \mid < n\). Finding the union of visibility polygons of guards in \(H\) can be done in polynomial time, as can comparing this union with \(T\).

### 3 Building quadratic nets

In this section we show how to build an \(\varepsilon\)-net using \(O(1/\varepsilon^2)\) guards. This result is not directly useful to us but we use this section to perform the geometric leg work, and hopefully provide some intuition, without worrying about the hierarchical decomposition to be described in Section 4. It should be clear that these \(\varepsilon\)-nets can be constructed in polynomial time.

#### 3.1 Subdividing the Perimeter.

For the construction both of the \(\varepsilon\)-nets in this section and those in the next section we will subdivide the perimeter into a number of fragments. Fragment endpoints will always lie on vertices, but the weight of a guard location may be split between multiple fragments and a fragment may consist of a single vertex.

The key difference between the construction of the \(\varepsilon\)-nets in this section and those in the next section is the method of fragmentation. In this section, the perimeter will simply be divided into \(m = 4/\varepsilon\) fragments each having weight \(\frac{\varepsilon}{4}w(G)\). For our purposes, \(1/\varepsilon\) will always be an integer so \(m\) will always be an integer.
3.2 Placing Extremal Guards.

For two fragments \( A_i \) and \( A_j \) we will place guards at extreme points of visibility. Those are the first and last points on \( A_i \) seen from \( A_j \) and the first and last points on \( A_j \) seen from \( A_i \). For a contiguous fragment we define the first (resp. last) point of the segment according to the natural clockwise ordering on the perimeter. We use \( G(A_i, A_j) \) to denote the set of up to 4 extremal guards placed between \( A_i \) and \( A_j \).

These extreme points of visibility might not lie on vertices. In fact, it is entirely possible that two fragments \( A_i \) and \( A_j \) see each other even if no vertex of \( A_i \) sees \( A_j \) and vice versa. If an extreme point of visibility is not a potential guard location, we will simply not place a guard there. Our proofs, in particular the proof of Lemma 2, will only require guards on extreme points of visibility that either lie on vertices or on fragment endpoints.

3.3 All Pairs Extremal Guarding.

Our aim in this section is to build an \( \varepsilon \)-net by placing extremal guards for every pair \((A_i, A_j)\) of fragments. We denote this set of guards with \( S_{AP} = \bigcup_{i \neq j} G(A_i, A_j) \).

Note that \( |S_{AP}| \leq 4 \binom{m}{2} = O(1/\varepsilon^2) \). Also note that every fragment endpoint is included in \( S_{AP} \).

Lemma 1. Any point not guarded by \( S_{AP} \) sees at most 4 fragments.

Corollary 2. \( S_{AP} \) is an \( \varepsilon \)-net of size \( O(1/\varepsilon^2) \).

For the proof of Lemma 1 we need to present additional properties of the fragments that can be seen by a point. For a point \( x \), the fragments seen by \( x \) are ordered clockwise in the order they appear on the boundary of \( P \). We need to consider lines of sight from \( x \), and what happens when a transition is made from seeing one fragment \( A_i \) to seeing the next fragment \( A_j \). There are three possibilities:

1. \( j = i + 1 \) and \( x \) sees the guard at the common endpoint of \( A_i \) and \( A_j \)
2. \( A_j \) occludes \( A_i \), in which case we say that \( x \) has a left tangent to \( A_j \) (see Figure 1)
3. \( A_i \) was occluding \( A_j \), in which case we say that \( x \) has a right tangent to \( A_i \) (see Figure 2).

We say a fragment \( A \) owns a point \( x \) if \( x \) sees \( A \) in a sector of size at least \( \pi \). We assume any point \( x \) is owned by at most one fragment; if \( x \) is a fragment endpoint it will itself be a guard, and otherwise if \( x \) is owned by two fragments then only those two fragments can see it.

Lemma 2. Let \( A_i, A_j, A_k \) be fragments that are seen by \( x \) consecutively in clockwise order. If \( x \) has a left tangent to \( A_j \), and the combined angle of \( A_j \) and \( A_k \) at \( x \) is no more than \( \pi \), then \( x \) sees a guard in \( G(A_j, A_k) \). Symmetrically, if \( x \) has a right tangent to \( A_j \), and the combined angle of \( A_i \) and \( A_j \) at \( x \) is no more than \( \pi \), then \( x \) sees a guard in \( G(A_i, A_j) \).

Proof. We can assume w.l.o.g. that \( x \) has a left tangent to \( A_j \) since the proof of the other case is symmetric. There are now two cases we have to deal with, depending on whether \( x \) has a right tangent to \( A_j \) (case 1) or a left tangent to \( A_k \) (case 2). Define \( p_L \) and \( p_R \) respectively as the first
Figure 1: The point $x$ has a left tangent to $A_j$.

Figure 2: The point $x$ has a right tangent to $A_i$.

Figure 3: The point $x$ has no tangent to $A_i$, a left tangent to $A_j$, both a left and right tangent to $A_k$, and a right tangent to $A_\ell$. $A_j$ owns $x$. 
Figure 4: Case 1 in the proof of Lemma 2. The point \( x \) has a left tangent and a right tangent to \( A_j \).

Figure 5: Case 2 in the proof of Lemma 2. The point \( x \) has a left tangent to \( A_j \) and a left tangent to \( A_k \).

and last points on \( A_j \) seen by \( x \). Observe that \( x \) must see every vertex on the geodesic between \( p_L \) and \( p_R \). Let \( q \) be the first point on \( A_j \) seen from \( A_k \). In both cases 1 and 2 (see Figures 4 and 5), \( q \) must be a vertex of the geodesic between \( p_L \) and \( p_R \). This can be shown by contradiction; if \( q \) lies between consecutive vertices of this geodesic then those two consecutive vertices must also be seen from \( A_k \), and one of them comes before \( q \).

The restriction that the combined angle of \( A_j \) and \( A_k \) at \( x \) is no more than \( \pi \) is necessary to ensure that the geodesic of interest from \( A_k \) to \( A_j \) does not ‘pass behind’ \( x \) to see a point on \( A_j \) before \( p_L \).

It should be emphasized that, since there is a left tangent to \( A_j \), \( p_L \) will always be a vertex. Also, if \( p_R \) is not a vertex it will not be the first point on \( A_j \) seen from \( A_k \).

The proof of Lemma 1 is now fairly straightforward.

Proof of Lemma 1 Let \( x \) be a point that sees at least 5 fragments. Assume \( x \) is not a fragment endpoint, otherwise it is itself a guard in \( S_{AP} \). If we have a directed graph whose underlying undirected graph is a cycle, then either we have a directed cycle or we have a vertex with in-degree 2. By the same principle, either some fragment seen by \( x \) has no tangent from \( x \), or every fragment seen by \( x \) has a left tangent from \( x \) (or every one has a right tangent, which can be handled symmetrically).

If a fragment seen by \( x \) has no tangent from \( x \), call such a fragment \( A_0 \) and let \( A_{-2}, A_{-1}, A_0, A_1, A_2 \) be fragments seen by \( x \) in clockwise order. If the combined angle at \( x \) of \( A_{-2} \) and \( A_{-1} \) is more than \( \pi \), the combined angle of \( A_1 \) and \( A_2 \) is less than \( \pi \). So we can apply Lemma 2 with one of the two pairs of fragments to show that \( x \) is seen by a guard.

If every fragment seen by \( x \) has a left tangent from \( x \), then we can apply Lemma 2 using two consecutive fragments with a combined angle at \( x \) of less than \( \pi \).
Before we move on we will prove one more helpful lemma.

**Lemma 3.** The number of fragments seen by an unguarded point $x$ that do not have a tangent from $x$ is at most 1.

**Proof.** Assume the contrary and let $A_0$ and $A_i$ be two such fragments. If one such fragment owns $x$, assume it is $A_0$ and call the next two fragments seen by $x$ in the clockwise direction $A_1$ and $A_2$ respectively. By Lemma 2, $x$ is seen by a guard in $G(A_1, A_2)$ so we reach a contradiction. If no such fragment owns $x$ then assume w.l.o.g. that, over the fragments seen by $x$ between $A_0$ and $A_i$ going clockwise, the combined angle at $x$ is less than $\pi$ (if this is not true it must be true going counterclockwise). Again, $x$ is seen by a guard in $G(A_1, A_2)$ so we reach a contradiction. □

4 Hierarchical fragmentation

In the last section we showed how a quadratic number of guards (i.e. $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$) could be placed to ensure that any unguarded point sees at most 4 fragments. In this section we discuss how hierarchical fragmentation can be used to reduce the number of guards required to $O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon \log \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}}\right)$.

We will use $S_{HF}$ to denote the guarding set constructed in this section. It should be clear that these $\varepsilon$-nets can be constructed in polynomial time.

We can consider the hierarchy as represented by a tree. At the root there is a single fragment representing the entire perimeter of the polygon. This root fragment is broken up into a certain number of child fragments. Fragmentation continues recursively until a specified depth $t$ is reached. We will set $t = \lceil \log \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \rceil$. The fragmentation factor (equivalently, the branching factor of the corresponding tree) is not constant, but rather depends on both $t$ and the level in the hierarchy. The fragmentation factor generally decreases as the level of the tree increases. Specifically, if $b_i$ is the fragmentation factor at the $i^{th}$ step, we have

$$b_i = \begin{cases} 2^{2^{t-1}+1} \cdot 4t \cdot 2^{1-t} \cdot \alpha, & i = 1 \\ 2^{2^{t-1}+1}, & 1 < i \leq t, \end{cases}$$

where $\alpha \leq 1$ is a term introduced only to deal with an issue arising from ceilings and double exponentials, namely the fact that $2^{2^{\lceil \log \log 1/\varepsilon \rceil}}$ is not in $O(1/\varepsilon)$. $\alpha$ is specified in (3) later in this section.

If $f_i$ is the total number of fragments after the $i^{th}$ fragmentation step, this gives us

$$f_i = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4t \cdot 2^{2^{t-2^{t-1}-t+i+1}} \cdot \alpha}, & i = 0 \\ \frac{1}{4t \cdot 2^{2^{t-2^{t-1}-t+i+1}} \cdot \alpha}, & 0 < i \leq t \\ \frac{1}{4t \cdot 2^{2^{t}} \cdot \alpha}, & i = t, \end{cases}$$
Our algorithm will place guards at all pairs of sibling fragments, i.e. fragments having the same parent fragment. For the purposes of this guard placement, the complement of the parent fragment, i.e. the subset of G outside the parent fragment, will be considered a dummy child fragment. That is, it will be considered a child fragment when placing guards, but not when counting the number of child fragments seen from some point \( x \) as in the statement of Corollary 3 or in the proof of Lemma 4. To denote the complement of a fragment \( A \) we use \( \overline{A} \). Considering \( A \) to be a child of \( A \) when placing guards allows us to consider the children of \( A \) as if they were fragments with guards placed for all pairs. For example, we can obtain the following corollary from Lemmas 1 and 3.

**Corollary 3.** For an unguarded point \( x \) and a fragment \( A \), the number of child fragments of \( A \) seen by \( x \) is at most 3, and at most one of these child fragments does not have a tangent from \( x \).
To satisfy these three criteria, it suffices to set

\[
\alpha = \left\lceil \frac{2^{t-1} + 1 \cdot 4t \cdot 2^{-t} \cdot 2\log(1/\varepsilon) - 2t}{4t \cdot 2^{t-1} + 1 - t - 2^{t-1}} \right\rceil.
\]  

(3)

We must now provide a generalization of Lemma 1 that works with our hierarchical fragmentation.

**Lemma 4.** Any point not guarded by \(S_{HF}\) sees at most 4 fragments at level \(i\).

Applying this with \(i = t\) and using (1) and (2), we get

**Corollary 4.** \(S_{HF}\) is an \(\varepsilon\)-net of size \(O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon^2} \log \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\).

**Proof of Lemma 4.** Let \(x\) be a point that does not see any guard in \(S_{HF}\). From the tree associated with the hierarchical fragmentation, we consider the subtree of fragments that see \(x\). We define a branching fragment as a fragment with multiple children seen by \(x\) and we claim that at any level there are at most 2 branching fragments. Corollary 3 tells us that any fragment has at most 3 children seen by \(x\). At level 1 there are at most 4 fragments seen by \(x\), so it follows that the number of fragments seen by \(x\) at level \(i\) is at most \(4^i\). We must now prove our claim that there are at most 2 branching fragments at any level.

First we note that a branching fragment either has no tangent from \(x\) or owns \(x\). To see this, consider a fragment \(A\) that has a tangent from \(x\) and does not own \(x\). Assume w.l.o.g. that \(x\) has a left tangent to \(A\) and call the point of tangency \(p_L\). \(x\) must then also have a left tangent to the child fragment \(A_0\) of \(A\) that contains \(p_L\). \(A_0\) must be the leftmost child fragment of \(A\) seen by \(x\). If \(x\) sees another child fragment \(A_1\) of \(A\) to the right of \(A_0\), then by Lemma 2 it is seen by a guard in \(G(A_0, A_1)\).

Consider now the following possibilities for a given fragment \(A\).

1. \(A\) is not seen by \(x\). Clearly \(x\) cannot see any child fragments of \(A\).

2. \(A\) does not own \(x\), and \(x\) has a tangent to \(A\). \(A\) then has exactly one child fragment that sees \(x\), and this fragment is of type (2).

3. \(A\) does not own \(x\), and \(x\) does not have a tangent to \(A\). By Corollary 3, \(x\) can see at most 3 child fragments of \(A\). At most one of these children is of type (3) and all others must be of type (1) or (2).

4. \(A\) owns \(x\) and has no tangents from \(x\), i.e. \(A\) has two tangents from \(x\). If a child of \(A\) owns \(x\) it must be the only child of \(A\) that sees \(x\), and this child is also of type (4). Otherwise, \(A\) would have a child fragment \(A_i\) that is seen by \(x\), does not own \(x\), and is adjacent to \(A\). \(x\) would then be seen by a guard in \(G(A_i, A_P)\). Thus \(A\) has at most one child that is not of type (1) or (2).

5. \(A\) owns \(x\) and has two tangents from \(x\). Because \(A\) is, in a sense, a ‘dummy’ child of type (3), \(A\) cannot have a real child of type (3) by the proof of Lemma 3. Further, if \(A\) has a child \(A_0\) that owns \(x\), this child must also be of type (5). Otherwise assume w.l.o.g. that \(A_1\), immediately clockwise from \(A_0\), has a left tangent from \(x\). Then, using \(A_2\) to denote the fragment clockwise from \(A_1\) (\(A_2\) might be \(A_P\)), \(x\) is seen by \(G(A_1, A_2)\).
Figure 6: The only way a fragment of type (5) can have three children seen by $x$.

6. $A$ owns $x$ and has exactly one tangent from $x$ (see Figure 7). We consider how $A$ can have multiple children seen by $x$. Assume w.l.o.g. that $\bar{A}$ has a right tangent. If $A_{-1}$ is the child of $A$ seen by $x$ immediately counterclockwise from $\bar{A}$ then $A_{-1}$ must own $x$, otherwise $x$ is seen by $G(A_{-1}, \bar{A})$. If $A_1$ is the child of $A$ seen by $x$ immediately clockwise from $\bar{A}$ then $A_1$ cannot have a tangent from $x$ otherwise $x$ would be seen by $G(\bar{A}, A_1)$. If $x$ can see $A_2$, a child of $A$ between $A_1$ and $A_{-1}$, then $x$ must have two tangents to $A_{-1}$ otherwise it would be seen by $G(A_1, A_2)$.

Therefore if $A$ has more than one child seen by $x$, there must one of type (3) and one of type (5), plus (possibly) a child of type (2).

We call a non-root fragment fruitful if it or one of its descendants is a branching fragment. Only fragments of type (3-6) can be fruitful. Only fragments of type (6) can have more than one fruitful child, and they can have at most two fruitful children. No non-root fragment can have a child fragment of type (6). Also, if the root has a child fragment of type (6), the root cannot have a child of type (3). Therefore any level has at most 2 fruitful fragments.

We can now state the following:

- Level 1 has at most 4 child fragments that see $x$, at most 2 of which are fruitful.
- A fruitful fragment has at most 3 child fragments that see $x$, at most 1 of which is fruitful.
- A non-fruitful fragment has at most 1 child fragment that sees $x$.

Therefore any level has at most 2 fruitful fragments and the number of fragments at level $i$ that see $x$ is at most $4i$. \[\square\]
5 Open problems

- We have obtained a $o(\log \text{OPT})$-approximation factor for vertex guards and perimeter guards. Can the same be done for point guards?

- Can we do better than $O(\log \log \text{OPT})$ for perimeter guards? In particular, can we find a constant factor approximation algorithm to match the hardness of approximation result of Eidenbenz [9]?

- For simple polygons, the set systems associated with point guards have maximum VC-dimension at least 6 and at most 23 [21]; it is believed that the true value is closer to the lower end of this range, perhaps even 6 [1]. The upper bound of 23 holds a fortiori for set systems associated with perimeter guards but the lower bound of 6 does not. A lower bound of 4 follows from a trivial modification to an example for monotone chains [15]; we can increase this bound to 5 without too much difficulty (see Figure 8). Can set systems associated with perimeter guards actually have VC-dimension as high as 6? And can the upper bound of 23 be improved? It seems that improving the upper bound would be easier for perimeter guards than for point guards.

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Figure 8: A polygon with a set $S$ of 5 points on the perimeter. The points in $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ are marked with circles and labeled with large numbers. Each point in $S$ sees all of $S$, and each guard seeing a subset of $S$ of size 3 or 4 is marked with a cross and labeled with small numbers indicating which points in $S$ it sees. Guards seeing the 16 subsets of $S$ of size 0, 1, or 2 are not shown. Adding these is a simple matter of adding nooks with very small angles of visibility, thus we can construct a polygon with 5 points on the perimeter shattered by $2^5$ perimeter guards. Such a polygon can also be obtained via a fairly straightforward modification of the example of Kalai and Matoušek for point guards [14].
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