

\mathcal{O} -Quickhull: A Fast and Efficient Algorithm for Determining the Connected Orthogonal Convex Hulls

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Abstract The Quickhull algorithm for finding the convex hull of a finite set of points was independently conducted by Eddy in 1977 and Bykat in 1978. Inspired by the idea of this algorithm, we present a new efficient algorithm, namely \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL, for finding extreme points of the connected orthogonal convex hull of a finite set of points that still keeps advantages of the Quickhull algorithm. Consequently, \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL runs faster than the others (the algorithms introduced by Montuno and Fournier in 1982 and by An, Huyen and Le in 2020). We also show that the expected complexity of the algorithm is $O(n \log n)$, where n is the number of points.

Keywords Convexity · Extreme points · Quickhull algorithm · Orthogonal convex hulls · $x - y$ convex hulls.

Mathematics Subject Classification (2000) MSC 52A30 · MSC 52B55 · MSC 68Q25 · MSC 65D18.

1 Introduction

Orthogonal convexity (rectilinearity, or (x, y) convexity, or $x - y$ convexity) is one of the most extensively subjects studied in computational geometry and convex analysis. It is widely used in research fields, including illumination [1], polyhedron reconstruction [9], geometric search [17], and VLSI circuit layout

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design [18], digital images processing [15]. The concept of orthogonal convex hull of a set was first mentioned in 1959 by Unger [19]. By 1983, Montuno and Fournier introduced efficient algorithms for computing the (x, y) -convex hulls of a finite set of planar points, an (x, y) -polygon and of a set of (x, y) -polygons under various conditions [11]. The condition under which the (x, y) -convex hull exists is given and an algorithm for testing if the given set of (x, y) -polygons satisfies the condition is also presented. Since then, there exist several algorithms for finding orthogonal convex hull proposed [10, 12], and [14]. Recently, in 2020, An, Huyen and Le give a condition that ensures the unique of the orthogonal convex hull of a finite planar point set and determine the hull through its extreme points [3]. Their efficient algorithm is modified from the Graham's convex hull algorithm. They also show that the lower bound of computational complexity of such algorithms is $O(n \log n)$.

The Quickhull algorithm [4, 6, 7, 13] determines the convex hull of a finite planar set of points. The worst case complexity of the algorithm is $O(n^2)$ and its average time is $O(n \log n)$. Quickhull is known as a powerful algorithm, which runs in practice much faster than in the worst case. The recursive nature of the Quickhull algorithm allows a fast implementation. This algorithm can also be easily designed as a parallel algorithm for finding convex hull of the point set. Recognizing the effectiveness of the Quickhull algorithm, in this paper, we apply the idea of this algorithm and its improved algorithm [8] to propose an algorithm, namely \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL, for determining extreme points of the orthogonal convex hull of a finite set of points and compare it with the algorithm [3] and Montuno and Fournier's algorithm [11]. We also show that the expected complexity of \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL is $O(n \log n)$, where n is the number of points.

The paper consists of several sections. Section 2 presents some concepts of connected orthogonal convexity that will be used in this paper. Section 3 introduces the definition of directed orthogonal lines and some other concepts. Section 4 is devoted to the algorithm \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL, based on the Quickhull algorithm to determine extreme points of the connected orthogonal convex hull of a finite planar point set and its expected complexity. Section 5 closes the paper with some numerical experiments.

2 Connected orthogonal convex hulls and their properties

Throughout this paper, we focus on the problem of determining the *connected orthogonal convex hull* of a finite planar point set.

Let be given $p, q, t \in \mathbb{R}^2$, denote $[p, q] := \{(1 - \lambda)p + \lambda q : 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1\}$, pq the straight line through the points p and q and $\text{dist}(t, pq)$ the Euclidean distance from t to the line pq . We denote by x_p and y_p respectively the x -coordinate and y -coordinate of p . As usual, $\text{dist}(p, q) := \sqrt{(x_p - x_q)^2 + (y_p - y_q)^2}$.

2.1 Connected orthogonal convex hulls

Definition 1 (see [19]) A set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is said to be *orthogonal convex* if its intersection with any horizontal or vertical line is convex.

S is said to be *connected orthogonal convex* if it is orthogonal convex and connected.

Definition 2 (see [14]) A *connected orthogonal convex hull* of S is a smallest connected orthogonal convex set containing S .

Let $u = (x_u, y_u), v = (x_v, y_v) \in S \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, L_1 norm is determined by $\|u - v\|_1 = |x_u - x_v| + |y_u - y_v|$. We use the definition L_1 norm in Proposition 1 and Lemma 2.

Proposition 1 (see [3]) Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Then, S is connected orthogonal convex iff for all $a, b \in S$, there exists a shortest path $SP(a, b) \subset S$ joining a and b with L_1 norm, and the length of $SP(a, b)$ is $\|a - b\|_1$. In addition, $SP(a, b)$ is an increasingly monotone path (i.e., for $u, v \in SP(a, b)$, $(x_u - x_v)(y_u - y_v) \geq 0$).

We define a line to be *rectilinear* if the line is parallel to either x -axis or y -axis. A half line or a line segment are *rectilinear* if the lines on which they lie are rectilinear.

Let $a \neq b$ be two given points in the plane. We define $l(a, b)(x_a \neq x_b, y_a \neq y_b)$ through a, b to be union of two rectilinear half lines having the same starting point. If $x_a = x_b$ or $y_a = y_b$ then $l(a, b)$ is the line through a and b . The set $l(a, b)$ is called the *orthogonal line* through a and b . The common point of two the rectilinear half lines of $l(a, b)$ is called the *vertex* of $l(a, b)$. We also denote by $l^v(a, b)$ the orthogonal line $l(a, b)$ having the vertex v .

An orthogonal line $l(a, b), (x_a \neq x_b, y_a \neq y_b)$ separates the plane into two regions. The quadrant region together with the orthogonal line $l(a, b)$ will be called a *quadrant* determined by the orthogonal line and denoted by $q(a, b)$.

Definition 3 (see [3]) Given a set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. An $l(a, b)$ is an orthogonal supporting line (\mathcal{O} -support, for brevity) of a set S (a and b might not belong to S) if the intersection of $l(a, b)$ with S is non-empty and either all points of $S \setminus (S \cap l(a, b))$ are not on the quadrant of $l(a, b)(x_a \neq x_b, y_a \neq y_b)$, or all points of $S \setminus (S \cap l(a, b))$ are on one open half plane which is determined by the line $l(a, b)(x_a = x_b, \text{ or } y_a = y_b)$.

Two \mathcal{O} -supports of a set S is said to be *opposite* if their half lines meet in two distinct points.

We denote by $\mathcal{F}(S)$ the set of all connected orthogonal convex hulls of S . For $E \in \mathcal{F}(S)$, if there exist two opposite \mathcal{O} -supports H and L of S intersecting in two distinct points, say p and q , with $x_p \neq x_q, y_p \neq y_q$, then there exists a monotone path connecting p and q in E . We define all points on such path (not including p and q) to be *semi-isolated* points of E . If there exists an element of $\mathcal{F}(S)$ that has no semi-isolated point then $\bigcap_{E \in \mathcal{F}(S)} E$ is a connected

orthogonal convex hull of S . Therefore, $\mathcal{F}(S)$ has only one element, denoted it by $\text{COCH}(S)$ [3]. From now on, we suppose that $\mathcal{F}(S)$ has only one element, i.e., its element $\text{COCH}(S)$ has no semi-isolated point.

Given a point $p(x_p, y_p)$. The four orthants $o_1(p), o_2(p), o_3(p)$ and $o_4(p)$ are determined by the closed regions

$$\begin{aligned} o_1(p) &:= [x_p, +\infty) \times [y_p, +\infty), \\ o_2(p) &:= (-\infty, x_p] \times [y_p, +\infty), \\ o_3(p) &:= (-\infty, x_p] \times (-\infty, y_p], \\ o_4(p) &:= [x_p, +\infty) \times (-\infty, y_p] \end{aligned}$$

as the orthants of the point p (see Fig. 1).

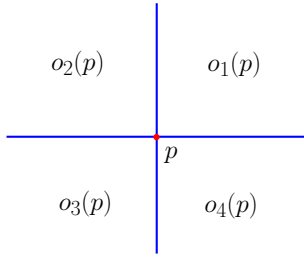


Fig. 1 $o_1(p), o_2(p), o_3(p)$ and $o_4(p)$ are the orthants of the point p .

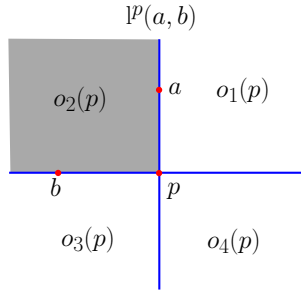


Fig. 2 $o_2(p)$ (shaded area) coincides with the quadrant defined by orthogonal line $l^p(a, b)$.

Remark 1 It is easy to see that four orthants of a point coincide with the quadrants defined by four orthogonal lines of the same point.

Let P be a finite planar point set. We assume that the set P satisfy that its connected orthogonal convex hulls have no semi-isolated points and call it the assumption (A).

Definition 4 (see [3]) A point $e \in \text{COCH}(P)$ is called an *extreme* (extreme point, for brevity) of $\text{COCH}(P)$ if there exists an orthant does not contain any points of $\text{COCH}(P) \setminus \{e\}$. We denote all extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$ briefly by $\text{o-ext}(\text{COCH}(P))$.

Incidentally, this is the same concept of *maximal points* of a finite planar point set P given in [5]. This can be seen later in Lemma 5.

Definition 5 An extreme point e of $\text{COCH}(P)$ has *index* j if $o_j(e)$, $j = 1, 2, 3, 4$, does not contain any point of $\text{COCH}(P) \setminus \{e\}$. The set containing all the extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$ with index j is denoted by $\text{o-ext}^j(\text{COCH}(P))$.

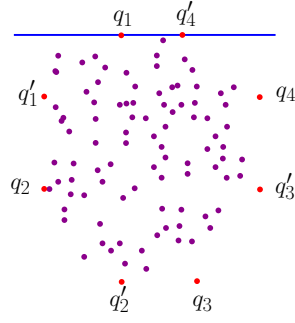


Fig. 3 Eight special points $q_1, q'_1, q_2, q'_2, q_3, q'_3, q_4, q'_4$.

2.2 Properties of connected orthogonal convex hulls of a finite planar point set

Definition 6 (see [8]) Let P be a finite planar point set. The point with the maximal y -coordinate (minimal y -coordinate, respectively) among the points of P having the minimal x -coordinate (maximal x -coordinate, respectively) is called the highest leftmost point (the lowest leftmost point, respectively). Similarly, we define seven other special points of P : leftmost highest, leftmost lowest, rightmost lowest, lowest rightmost, highest rightmost, rightmost highest points.

In Fig. 3, q_1 is the leftmost highest, q'_1 is the highest leftmost, q_2 is the lowest leftmost, q'_2 is the leftmost lowest, q_3 is the rightmost lowest, q'_3 is the lowest rightmost, q_4 is the highest rightmost, and q'_4 is the rightmost highest. It is clear that the eight points in Definition 6 are the extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$.

Remark 2 If $|P| > 2$, there exist two distinct extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$. Indeed, we consider the following cases:

- If P has more than two distinct points and the points of P belong to a straight line, then the two ending points are the two distinct extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$.
- If P has more than two distinct points and the points of P are not collinear, then two distinct extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$ are chosen as the highest leftmost and the lowest rightmost, or the leftmost highest and the rightmost lowest, or the rightmost highest and the leftmost lowest, or the highest rightmost and the lowest leftmost.

Lemma 1 (see [3]) *We have*

- i) $\text{o-ext}(\text{COCH}(P)) \subseteq P$.
- ii) $P \subseteq \text{COCH}(P)$.
- iii) Let P_1, P_2 be two finite point sets in the plane and $P_1 \subseteq P_2$. Then $\text{COCH}(P_1) \subseteq \text{COCH}(P_2)$.

The minimum rectilinear rectangle of a planar point set is a minimum rectangle having edges parallel to x or y axes that contains the set.

Lemma 2 *Every connected orthogonal convex hull of a finite planar point set is included in the minimum rectilinear rectangle of the point set.*

Proof. Let E be a connected orthogonal convex hull of finite planar point set P , R be the minimum rectilinear rectangle bounded of P . Assume, on contrary, $E \not\subseteq R$. Let $F = R \cap E \subsetneq E$. For all $a, b \in F$, $a, b \in E$. By orthogonal convexity of E , Proposition 1 yields that there exists a L_1 shortest path γ joining a and b such that $\gamma \subseteq E$. Since $a, b \in R$, γ is a monotone path in $R \cap E = F$ and therefore, F is connected. We are in position to prove that F is orthogonal convex. Let h be an arbitrary horizontal line intersecting F (the case of h being a vertical line is similar). Then $S = h \cap E$ convex. Since $h \cap F = h \cap (R \cap E) = (h \cap E) \cap R = S \cap R$, we conclude that $h \cap F$ is convex. Therefore, F is connected orthogonal convex and $F \subsetneq E$. This contradicts the fact that E is a smallest connected orthogonal convex hull of P . Hence, $E \subseteq R$. \square

Note that Proposition 1 and Lemma 2 imply the following Proposition 2 and Proposition 2 is used in Subsection 5.2.

Proposition 2 *Let $P := \{p_1, \dots, p_m\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Then, every connected orthogonal convex hull of P is compact.*

The proof is given in the Appendix. The compactness of the connected orthogonal convex hull of a finite planar point set P is also shown in the Lemma 3 below.

A *rectilinear polygon* is a simple polygon whose edges are rectilinear (i.e., they are parallel to either x or y axis). The polygon has therefore only 90 and 270 degree internal angles. An (x, y) -*polygon* is one of the following: a) a point; b) connected rectilinear line segments; c) a rectilinear polygon; and d) a connected union of type b) and or type c) (x, y) -polygons (see [11]).

Lemma 3 (see [3]) *The connected orthogonal convex hull of a finite planar point set P is an orthogonal convex (x, y) -polygon whose boundary is union of finite set of \mathcal{O} -supports, and each \mathcal{O} -support goes through two extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$.*

Lemma 4 *If $p \in \text{COCH}(P)$ then each orthant of p contains at least an extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$.*

The proof of Lemma 4 is given in the Appendix. We denote the set of maximal points of P by $\mathcal{M}(P)$.

Lemma 5 *Let P be a finite planar point set satisfying (A). Then a maximal of P is an extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$ and vice versa. Consequently,*

$$\mathcal{M}(P) = \text{o-ext}(\text{COCH}(P)).$$

The proof of Lemma 5 is given in the Appendix. The following lemma is needed to prove the complexity of the algorithm in Section 4.

Lemma 6 (see [5]) *Let P be the set of n points chosen according to any probability distribution Δ . Then the expected number of maximal points of P is $O(\log n)$.*

3 Directed orthogonal lines and some related concepts

In this content we present definition a *directed orthogonal line* and some other properties necessary to serve the following section.

Given an ordered triple of points (a, b, c) in \mathbb{R}^2 , let

$$\text{orient}(a, b, c) = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & x_a & y_a \\ 1 & x_b & y_b \\ 1 & x_c & y_c \end{vmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

Definition 7 (see [6], p.10) We say that

- (i) The ordered triple (a, b, c) has *positive orientation* (*negative orientation*, *zero orientation*, resp.) if $\text{orient}(a, b, c) > 0$ ($\text{orient}(a, b, c) < 0$, $\text{orient}(a, b, c) = 0$, resp.).
- (ii) The point c is called *on the left of* (*on the right of*, *on*, resp.) the directed line ab if $\text{orient}(a, b, c) > 0$ ($\text{orient}(a, b, c) < 0$, $\text{orient}(a, b, c) = 0$, resp.).

Definition 8 Let $l^v(a, b)$ be the orthogonal line through two points a and b ($x_a \neq x_b, y_a \neq y_b$) with its vertex v . If b is on the right of av then we call $l^v(a, b)$ the *directed orthogonal line* from a to b and denoted it by $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$ (Figure 4).

Definition 9 Let $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$ be a directed orthogonal line from a to b with its vertex v . A point p is called *is on the right of* $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$ if p is on the right of both av and vb . A point p is called *is on the left of* $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$ if p is either on the left of av or on the left of vb (Figure 4(i)).

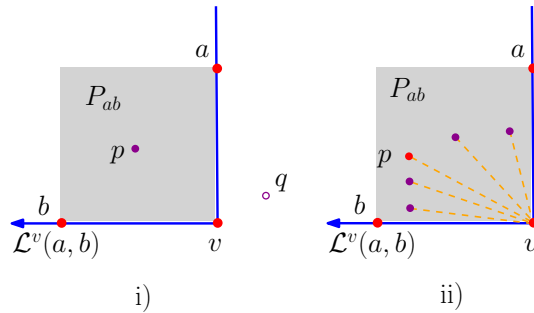


Fig. 4 i) p is on the right of $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$, q is on the left of $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$; ii) p is the farthest point to $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$.

We denote by P_{ab} the set containing all points of P being on the right of $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$.

Definition 10 Let $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$ be a directed orthogonal line from a to b with its vertex v and $p \in P_{ab}$. We call the length of $[p, v]$ the *orthogonal distance* from p to $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$, denoted by $\text{Odists}(p, \mathcal{L}^v(a, b))$. The point p is called the *farthest point* of P_{ab} to $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$ if p satisfies

$$\text{Odists}(p, \mathcal{L}^v(a, b)) = \max_{q \in P_{ab}} \{\text{Odists}(q, \mathcal{L}^v(a, b))\}.$$

Note from Definition 5 that an extreme point e of $\text{COCH}(P)$ has *index* j , $j = 1, 2, 3, 4$, if the orthant $o_j(e)$ does not contain any points of $\text{COCH}(P) \setminus \{e\}$ and the set containing all the extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$ with index j is denoted by $\text{o-ext}^j(\text{COCH}(P))$.

Lemma 7 Let a, b ($x_a \neq x_b, y_a \neq y_b$) be any two distinct extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$. Then

$$\text{o-ext}_{ab}^j(\text{COCH}(P)) \subseteq \text{o-ext}(\text{COCH}(P_{ab})),$$

where $\text{o-ext}_{ab}^j(\text{COCH}(P))$ the set of all the extreme points with index j of $\text{COCH}(P)$ in P_{ab} .

Proof. Let $e \in \text{o-ext}_{ab}^j(\text{COCH}(P))$. According to Definition 5, the orthant $o_j(e)$ does not contain any points of $\text{COCH}(P) \setminus \{e\}$. Because $P_{ab} \subseteq P$ and Lemma 1(iii), we get that $\text{COCH}(P_{ab}) \subseteq \text{COCH}(P)$ and therefore $o_j(e)$ does not contain any points of $\text{COCH}(P_{ab}) \setminus \{e\}$. It follows that $e \in \text{o-ext}(\text{COCH}(P_{ab}))$, i.e., $\text{o-ext}_{ab}^j(\text{COCH}(P)) \subseteq \text{o-ext}(\text{COCH}(P_{ab}))$. \square

Let a, b ($x_a \neq x_b, y_a \neq y_b$) be any two distinct extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$. There are four cases of two points a and b as follows (see Fig. 5).

- Case 1: $x_a > x_b$ and $y_a < y_b$;
- Case 2: $x_a > x_b$ and $y_a > y_b$;
- Case 3: $x_a < x_b$ and $y_a > y_b$;

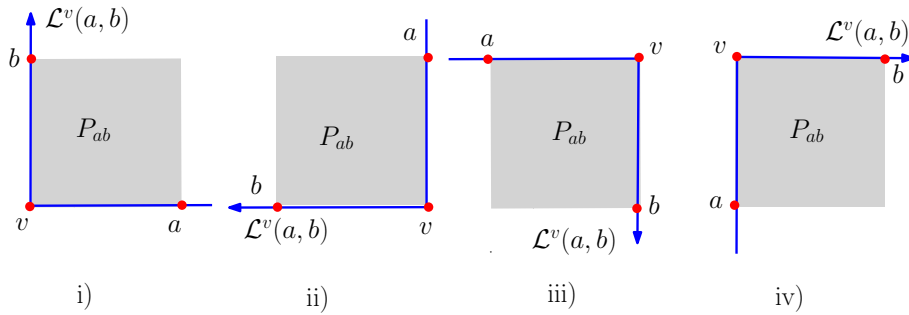


Fig. 5 The four cases of a, b : i) Case 1; ii) Case 2; iii) Case 3; iv) Case 4.

- Case 4: $x_a < x_b$ and $y_a < y_b$.

The following proposition is needed to prove the correctness of the algorithm in the next section.

Proposition 3 *Let a, b ($x_a \neq x_b, y_a \neq y_b$) be any two distinct extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$ and c be a farthest point of P_{ab} from the directed orthogonal line $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$. Then*

- i) c is an extreme point with index j of $\text{COCH}(P)$ in Case j of two points a, b , $j = 1, 2, 3, 4$.
- ii) $o_v(c) \cap (P_{ab} \setminus \{c\}) \cap \text{o-ext}^j(\text{COCH}(P)) = \emptyset$, where $o_v(c)$ is an orthant of c and contains v . Consequently, any point in $o_v(c) \cap (P_{ab} \setminus \{c\})$ is not an extreme point with index j of $\text{COCH}(P)$ in P_{ab} .

Proof. Consider the Case 2 ($j = 2$) of two points a, b (the other cases, $j = 1, 3, 4$, are similar).

- i) We claim that

$$o_2(c) \text{ does not contain any point of } P_{ab} \setminus \{c\}. \quad (2)$$

Assume the contrary that there is a point $t \in o_2(c) \cap (P_{ab} \setminus \{c\})$. Then we have $x_t \leq x_c$, $y_t \geq y_c$, and $t \neq c$. We get $\text{dist}(t, s) > \text{dist}(c, s)$ and therefore c is not a farthest point of P_{ab} from the directed orthogonal line $\mathcal{L}^s(a, b)$, a contradiction. Thus (2) holds true.

On the other hand, if a point $t \in P \setminus P_{ab}$ then $x_t \geq x_a$ or $y_t \leq y_b$. It follows that $x_t > x_c$ or $y_t < y_c$, i.e., $t \notin o_2(c)$. Therefore

$$o_2(c) \text{ does not contain any point of } P \setminus P_{ab}. \quad (3)$$

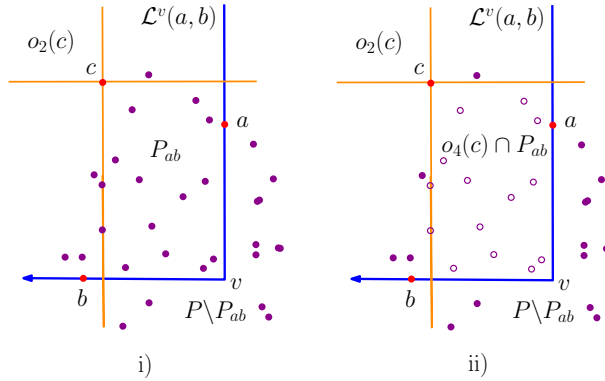


Fig. 6 In the Case 2 of a, b (i) the farthest point c to $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$ is an extreme point with index 2 of $\text{COCH}(P)$ and (ii) all the points in the set $o_4(c) \cap (P_{ab} \setminus \{c\})$ are not the extreme points with index 2 of $\text{COCH}(P)$ in P_{ab} .

From (2) and (3) we deduce that $o_2(c)$ does not contain any point of $P \setminus \{c\}$, i.e., c is an extreme point with index 2 of P . It follows from the Lemma 5 that c is an extreme point with index 2 of $\text{COCH}(P)$.

ii) In the Case 2 of two point a and b , we get that $o_v(c) \equiv o_4(c)$. Take $d \in o_4(c) \cap (P_{ab} \setminus \{c\})$. We get that $x_c \leq x_d$ and $y_c \geq y_d$ and therefore $c \in o_2(d)$. It follows from Definition 5 that d is not an extreme point with index 2 of $\text{COCH}(P)$ in P_{ab} . \square

Remark 3 Among the points of the set P_{ab} , there can be more than one farthest point from the directed orthogonal line $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$. However, all of them are the extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$ (according to Proposition 3(i)).

4 Algorithm based on Quickhull for finding the connected orthogonal convex hulls

4.1 \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL algorithm

Consider the following four cases: the leftmost highest coincides with the highest leftmost, and the lowest leftmost coincides with the leftmost lowest, and the rightmost lowest coincides with the lowest rightmost, and the highest rightmost coincides with the rightmost highest, $\text{COCH}(P)$ is a rectangle formed by these points. That is reason why we can assume from now on that at least one of the cases above does not hold.

Inspired by the idea of the Quickhull algorithm [4, 6, 7, 13], we now present a new efficient algorithm, namely \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL, for finding the connected orthogonal convex hull $\text{COCH}(P)$ of a finite planar point set P under the assumption (A). The first step of the \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL is to find two distinct extreme points, say a and b , of $\text{COCH}(P)$ (this is always guaranteed according to Remark 2). Let $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$ be the directed orthogonal line with its vertex v from a to b . Note that, P_{ab} the set containing all points on the right of $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$. Then, from P_{ab} find the farthest point, say c , from the directed orthogonal line $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$. Add the point c to $\text{o-ext}(\text{COCH}(P))$. Let $\mathcal{L}^{v_1}(a, c)$ ($\mathcal{L}^{v_2}(c, b)$, resp.) be the directed orthogonal line with its vertex v_1 (v_2 , resp.) from a to c (from c to b). Proposition 3(ii) allows us not to consider points $t \in o_v(c) \cap (P_{ab} \setminus \{c\})$. Therefore, to find the next extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$, we replace the directed orthogonal line $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$ by $\mathcal{L}^{v_1}(a, c)$ and $\mathcal{L}^{v_2}(c, b)$, and recursively continue the algorithm.

\mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL illustrates the function $\mathcal{O}\text{-Quickhull}(a, b, P_{ab})$, where a, b is two distinct extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$ and P_{ab} is the set of all points on the right of the directed orthogonal line $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$ with its vertex v from a to b . If two points a, b are in Case j ($j = 1, 2, 3, 4$) then the output of \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL contains all the extreme points with index j of $\text{COCH}(P)$ in P_{ab} . We use “ \cup ” to represent list concatenation. The final orthogonal convex hull is found when we choose pairs of extreme points to apply \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL (see Subsection 5.2).

Algorithm 1 \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL algorithm

function \mathcal{O} -Quickhull(a, b, P_{ab})

1. **If** $P_{ab} = \emptyset$ then **return** ()
 2. **else**
 - (a) $c \leftarrow$ the farthest point from $\mathcal{L}^v(a, b)$.
 - (b) $P_{ac} \leftarrow$ the set of points on the right of the directed orthogonal line $\mathcal{L}^{v_1}(a, c)$ from a to c with its vertex v_1 .
 - (c) $P_{cb} \leftarrow$ the set of points on the right of the directed orthogonal line $\mathcal{L}^{v_2}(c, b)$ from c to b with its vertex v_2 .
 - (d) **return** \mathcal{O} -Quickhull(a, c, P_{ac}) $\cup \{c\} \cup \mathcal{O}$ -Quickhull(c, b, P_{cb}).
-

Remark 4 In \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL, after finding the extreme point c with index j , in order to find the next extreme points with index j , we only need to consider the points in the set P_{ac} and P_{cb} , that is, the points in the set $P_{ab} \setminus ((P_{ac} \cup P_{cb}) \setminus \{c\})$ are not considered anymore because these points cannot be the extreme points with index j of the $\text{COCH}(P)$ in P_{ab} (see Proposition 3(ii)). Thus, the number of points to detect the next extreme point will decrease significantly.

4.2 The correctness and the complexity of \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL

We going to present the correctness of \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL in the following Theorem 1.

Theorem 1 *If two points a, b are in Case j ($j = 1, 2, 3, 4$) then the output of \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL contains all the extreme points with index j of $\text{COCH}(P)$ in P_{ab} .*

The proof of Theorem 1 is given in the Appendix. We will discuss the following simple analysis of the time complexity of \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL.

Theorem 2 *Suppose that the set P_{ab} consists n points. The worst case complexity of the \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL is $O(n^2)$ and its expected complexity is $O(n \log n)$.*

Proof. Suppose that the output of \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL has m extreme points with index j of $\text{COCH}(P)$ in P_{ab} . The algorithm calls \mathcal{O} -Quickhull functions $(m+1)$ times. In which, each of the first m functions finds exactly one extreme point with index j of $\text{COCH}(P)$ and need $O(n)$ time complexity. The last time work with an empty set. So the time complexity of \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL is $O(mn)$. In the worst case, when $m = n$, we have the worst time complexity of $O(n^2)$. According to Lemma 5, Lemma 6, and Lemma 7, the expected number of extreme points with index j of $\text{COCH}(P)$ in P_{ab} is $O(\log n)$, i.e., $m = O(\log n)$. Therefore, the expected complexity of \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL is $O(n \log n)$. \square

5 Implementation

In this section, we present the selection of pairs of distinct extreme points a and b to apply \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL to find the final orthogonal convex hull of a finite set of a planar points. Besides, we are going to compare the running times of \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL to \mathcal{O} -Graham introduced by An, Huyen and Le in [3] and an other algorithm proposed by Montuno and Fournier in [11].

5.1 The Test Sets

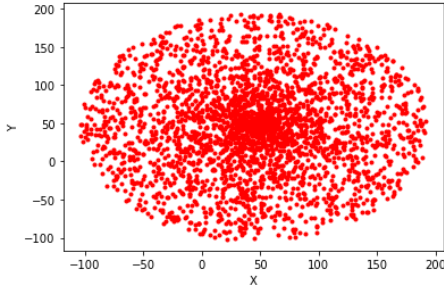


Fig. 7 Disc data with 3000 points.

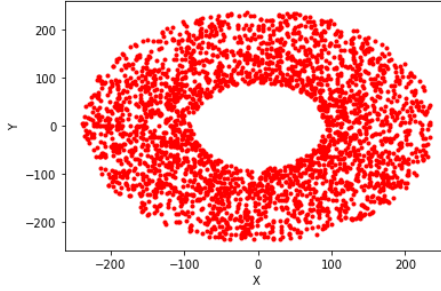


Fig. 8 Hollow disc data with 3000 points.

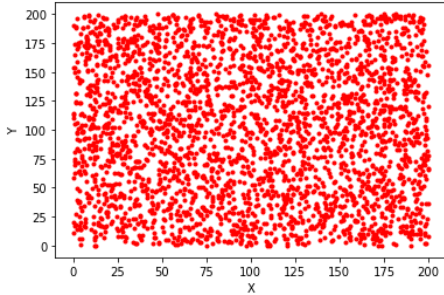


Fig. 9 Square data with 3000 points.

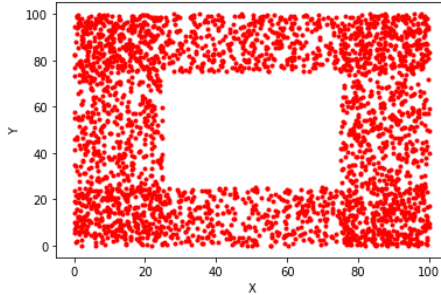


Fig. 10 Hollow square data with 3000 points.

To test the algorithms we create five data types, below are specific descriptions for these 6 data types

- Disc data: We generate random real points in a disc. For instance, the input data in Fig. 7 consists of 3000 points.
- Hollow disc data: We create two concentric discs (or ellipses) of different radii. The input points are created randomly outside the smaller disc (or

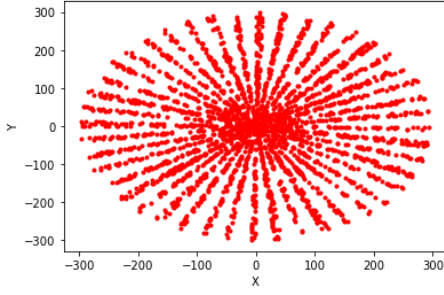


Fig. 11 Sun data with 3000 points.

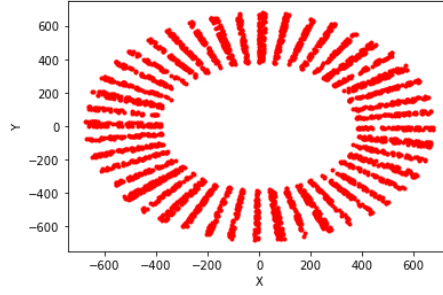


Fig. 12 Hollow Sun data with 3000 points.

ellipse) but inside the bigger one. Different examples are created with different radii ratios (see Fig. 8).

- Square data: The input points are randomly generated inside a square (see Fig. 9).
- Hollow square data: The points are created randomly inside a square and outside another smaller concentric square. We create data corresponding to different sizes of the smaller square (see Fig. 10).
- Sun data: The points are randomly generated according to the central angle of a disc and interspersed equal angles with no points (see Fig. 11).
- Hollow sun data: The points are randomly generated according to the central angle of a disc and interspersed equal angles with no points. In addition, these points are also created outside the concentric disc with the one above (see Fig. 12).

5.2 Numerical Results

In this subsection we present the selection of pairs of distinct extreme points a and b to apply \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL to find the final orthogonal convex hull of a finite set of a planar points.

It is known that the points lying inside or on the edges of the polygon which its edges are parallel to x -axis or y -axis connecting eight extreme points $q_1, q'_1, q_2, q'_2, q_3, q'_3, q_4$ and q'_4 (except the eight these points) are not extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$ and can be deleted (see Figure 13).

Due to the compactness of $\text{COCH}(P)$, we can determine its boundary according to Lemma 3 as the union of finite set of \mathcal{O} -supports, where each \mathcal{O} -support goes through two extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$. Thus $\text{COCH}(P)$ is an orthogonal convex (x, y) -polygon whose boundary is union of the rectilinear line segments $[q_i, q'_i]$, $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ and staircase paths $\mathcal{P}_{q_i q'_i}$ (formed by the extreme points with the same index) joining q_i and $q'_i, i = 1, 2, 3, 4$, respectively. We apply \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL for set $P_{q_1 q'_1}$ if $q_1 \neq q'_1$, set $P_{q_2 q'_2}$ if $q_2 \neq q'_2$, set $P_{q_3 q'_3}$ if $q_3 \neq q'_3$, set $P_{q_4 q'_4}$ if $q_4 \neq q'_4$. Therefore, the final orthogonal convex hull

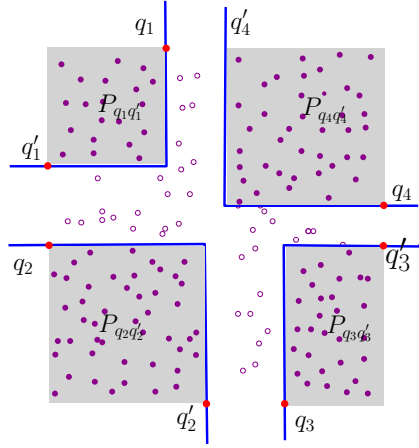


Fig. 13 Four sets $P_{q_i q'_i}$, $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$.

$\text{COCH}(P)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} & \{q_1\} \cup \mathcal{O}\text{-Quickhull}(q_1, q'_1, P_{q_1 q'_1}) \cup \{q'_1, q_2\} \cup \mathcal{O}\text{-Quickhull}(q_2, q'_2, P_{q_2 q'_2}) \\ & \cup \{q'_2, q_3\} \cup \mathcal{O}\text{-Quickhull}(q_3, q'_3, P_{q_3 q'_3}) \cup \{q'_3, q_4\} \cup \mathcal{O}\text{-Quickhull}(q_4, q'_4, P_{q_4 q'_4}). \end{aligned}$$

If no case occurs (i.e., $q_1 = q'_1$, $q_2 = q'_2$, $q_3 = q'_3$, $q_4 = q'_4$), the rectangle $q_1 q_2 q_3 q_4$ is the orthogonal convex hull to look for.

The algorithms are implemented in python and run on PC 1.8 GHz Intel Core i5 with 8 GB RAM. The Fig. 14- 19 illustrate the results of finding orthogonal convex hull of the sets of points corresponding to the data sets.

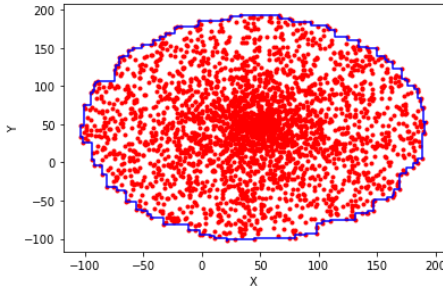


Fig. 14 The connected orthogonal convex hull of the disc data.

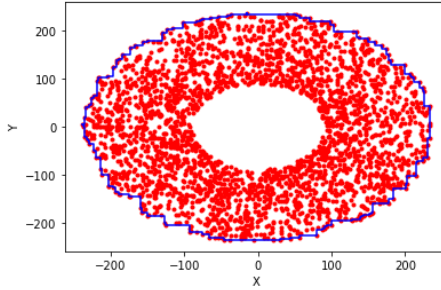


Fig. 15 The connected orthogonal convex hull of the hollow disc data.

Tables 1 - 6 list the running times (in seconds) of the three algorithms: \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL, \mathcal{O} -Graham introduced by An, Huyen and Le in [3] (\mathcal{O} -Graham, in short) and the algorithm proposed by Montuno and Fournier in [11] (Montuno and Fournier's algorithm, in short).

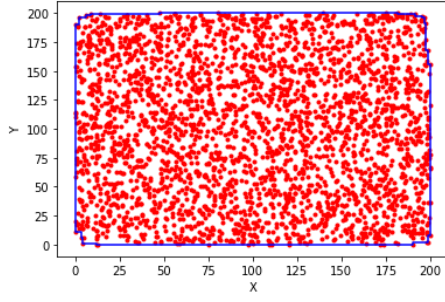


Fig. 16 The connected orthogonal convex hull of the square data.

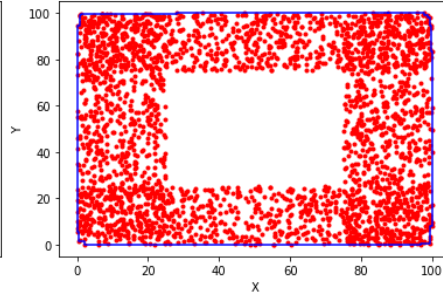


Fig. 17 The connected orthogonal convex hull of the hollow square data.

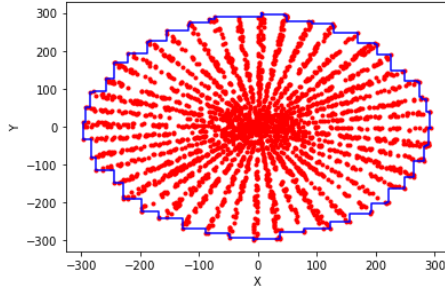


Fig. 18 The connected orthogonal convex hull of the sun data.

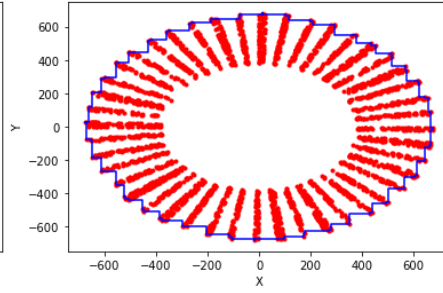


Fig. 19 The connected orthogonal convex hull of the hollow sun data.

Input	\mathcal{O} -Graham	Montuno and Fournier's algorithm	\mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL
1000	0.18	0.332	0.138
3000	0.259	0.473	0.187
5000	0.362	0.625	0.245
7000	0.685	0.777	0.344
10000	0.999	1.115	0.594
13000	1.333	1.379	0.993
15000	1.724	1.868	1.131
17000	2.096	1.964	1.418
20000	2.746	2.363	2.012
25000	4.420	3.940	2.861
30000	5.868	5.140	4.331
35000	8.635	7.503	6.321
40000	11.532	9.143	7.558
45000	15.217	12.099	9.939
50000	18.504	15.844	12.590
70000	42.312	34.126	29.271
100000	98.457	71.852	66.852

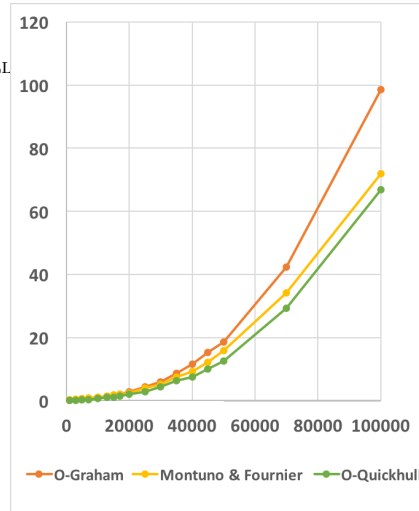


Table 1 The actual running times (in seconds) of the algorithms for disc data.

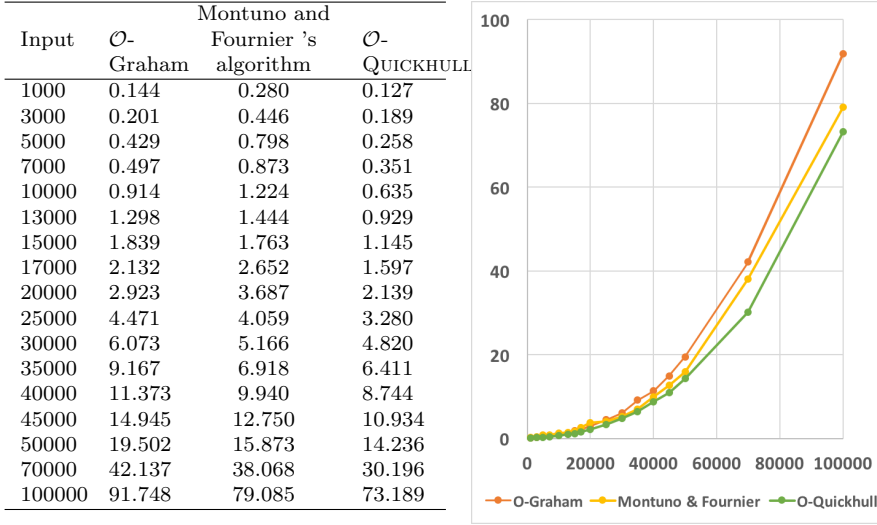


Table 2 The actual running times (in seconds) of the algorithms for hollow disc data.

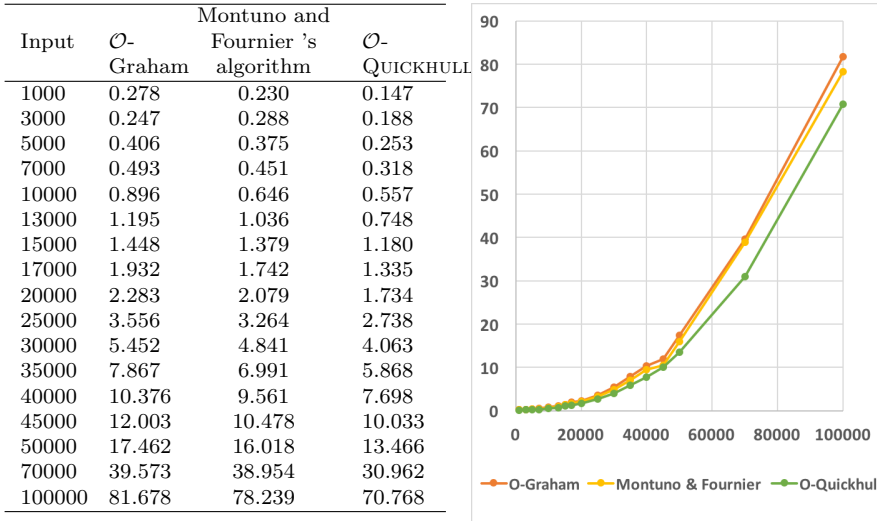


Table 3 The actual running times (in seconds) of the algorithms for square data.

In general, \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL runs faster than the others. For convenience, in Table 7, we list the ratios of the actual running times of \mathcal{O} -graham algorithm and Montuno and Fournier's algorithm to the \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL. In the last row of Table 7, we compute the ratios of all the tested data for the overall results. All ratios are calculated using the geometric mean. As shown in the average

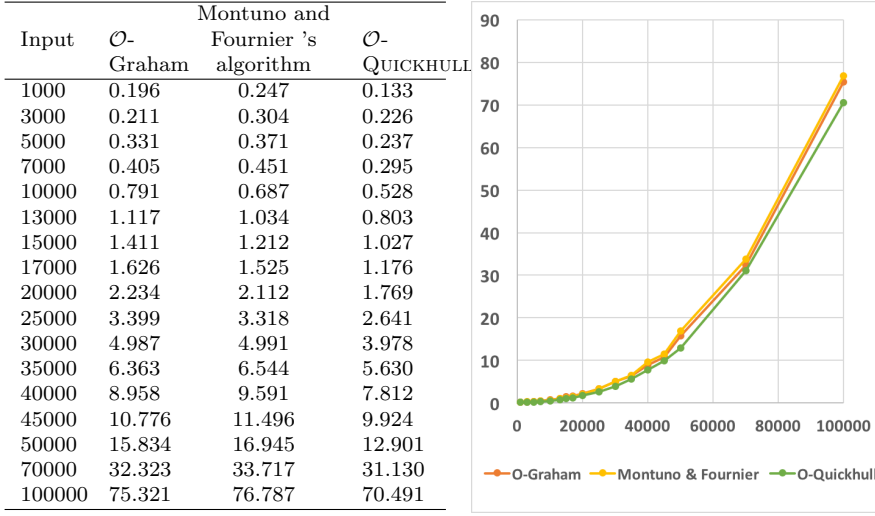


Table 4 The actual running times (in seconds) of the algorithms for hollow square data.

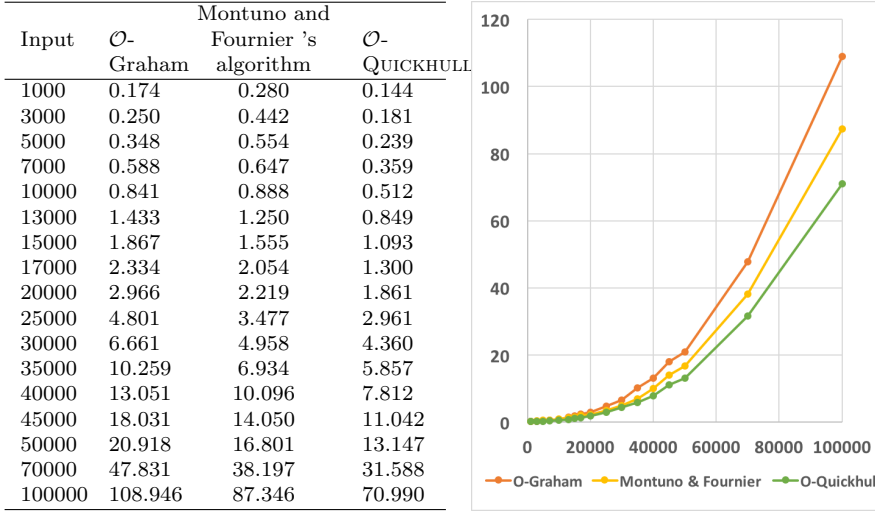


Table 5 The actual running times (in seconds) of the algorithms for sun data.

result on all the data, \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL is 1.431 times faster than \mathcal{O} -Graham algorithm and 1.401 times faster than Montuno and Fournier's algorithm. The reason is that after finding an extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$, a large number of points that are certainly not the extreme points of $\text{COCH}(P)$ is ignored, i.e., the number of points to consider when finding a new extreme point will reduce significantly (see Proposition 3(ii) and Remark 4). Furthermore, \mathcal{O} -

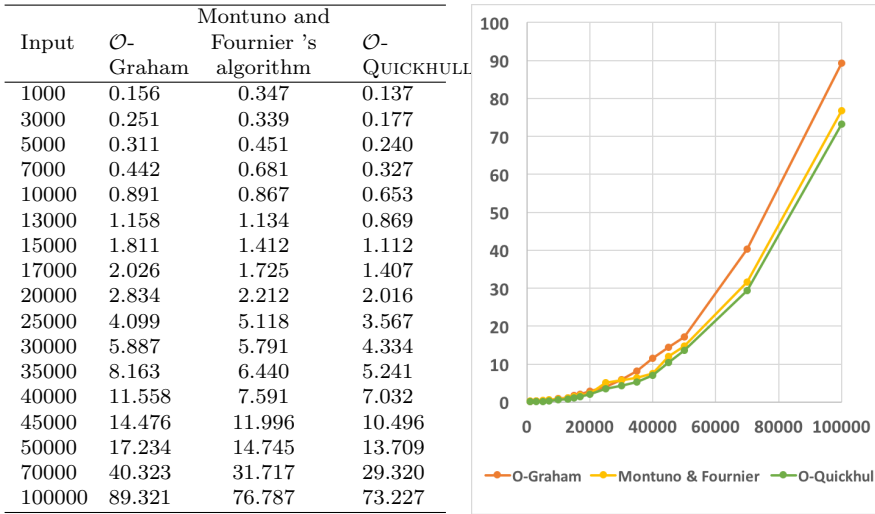


Table 6 The actual running times (in seconds) of the algorithms for hollow sun data.

Table 7 The ratios of the actual running times of \mathcal{O} -graham algorithm and Montuno and Fournier's algorithm to the \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL.

Data types	The ratio of \mathcal{O} -Graham to \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL	The ratio of Montuno and Fournier's algorithm to \mathcal{O} -QUICKHULL
Disc data	1.479	1.516
Hollow disc data	1.355	1.539
Square data	1.394	1.264
Hollow square data	1.244	1.288
Sun data	1.579	1.467
Hollow sun data	1.364	1.365
All data	1.431	1.401

QUICKHULL does not need a preprocessing step, which rearranges the input points as \mathcal{O} -graham algorithm and Montuno and Fournier's algorithm.

6 Concluding Remarks

We have provided an efficient algorithm, based on the idea of quickhull, for finding the connected orthogonal convex hull of a finite planar point set and have compared it with the algorithm [3] and Montuno and Fournier's algorithm [11]. A similar algorithm for finding \mathcal{O}_β -convex hulls (introduced in [2]) can be given. In addition, we can use the idea of space subdivision [16] to give efficient algorithms for finding such hulls. They will be the subject of another paper.

Acknowledgment

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Appendix

The proof of Proposition 2

Proof. Let E be a connected orthogonal convex hull of P and F be the minimum rectangle having edges parallel to coordinates axes, where F is formed by $a, b, c, d \in P$. (see Fig. 20 (i)).

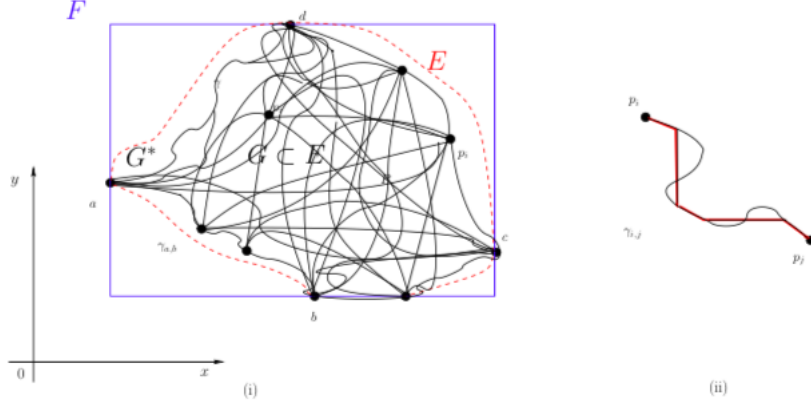


Fig. 20 (i) $G := \bigcup_{(i,j) \in [1,m] \times [1,m]} \gamma_{i,j}$ and the region G^* formed by the path γ . (ii) Adapting $\gamma_{i,j}$ to get an orthogonal convex set.

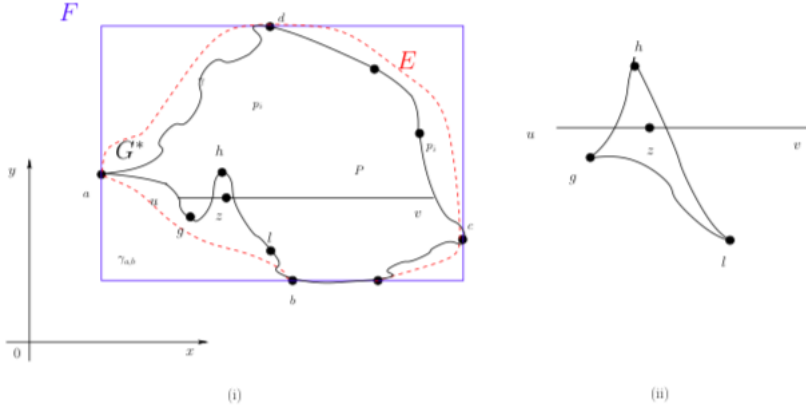


Fig. 21 $z \in [u, v]$ in the region G^* formed by the monotone paths $\gamma_{h,g}$, $\gamma_{h,l}$ and $\gamma_{g,l}$.

We now claim that there is a compact orthogonal convex subset set of E containing P . By Proposition 1, for each pair $(i, j) \in [1, m] \times [1, m]$, exists a staircase path belonging to E , say $\gamma_{i,j}$, joining p_i and p_j (see Fig. 20 (ii)).

Lemma 2 implies that $E \subset F$, then

$$G := \bigcup_{(i,j) \in [1,m] \times [1,m]} \gamma_{i,j} \subset F.$$

By the way, the closedness of $\gamma_{i,j}$ yields that G is closed. Thus G is compact. Let γ be the boundary of G . We prove that γ is a path. Let $\beta_1(x) := \min\{\gamma_{ij}(x) : (i,j) \in [1,m] \times [1,n]\}$, where $x \in [a_x, b_x]$. Since minimum of finite continuous functions is also continuous, $\beta_1(x)$ is continuous. Therefore, the part of γ from a to b is a path. By similar argument,

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_2(x) &:= \min\{\gamma_{ij}(x) : (i,j) \in [1,m] \times [1,n]\}, \text{ where } x \in [b_x, c_x]; \\ \beta_3(x) &:= \max\{\gamma_{ij}(x) : (i,j) \in [1,m] \times [1,n]\}, \text{ where } x \in [b_x, c_x]; \\ \beta_4(x) &:= \max\{\gamma_i(x) : (i,j) \in [1,m] \times [1,n]\}, \text{ where } x \in [a_x, b_x] \end{aligned}$$

are also continuous. Therefore, the parts of γ from b to c (β_2), from c to d (β_3) and from d to a (β_4) are paths. Then γ is a path. By the way chosen each part of γ , we get γ is not self-cross. Thus γ bounds a region G^* . We have $G^* \subset E$ and G^* is connected and contains P .

We are in position to prove that G^* is orthogonal convex. Take a rectilinear line k intersecting G^* . Let $u, v \in k \cap G^*$ being two “farthest” points which still lie in G^* . Assume without loss of generality that $[u, v]$ is parallel to x -axis. We claim that $[u, v] \subset G^*$. Assume the contrary that $z \in [u, v] \setminus G^*$ (see Fig. 21 (i)). Consider the case u belongs to the part $\gamma_{a,b}$ of γ between a and b and $a_x < z_x < b_x$ (the other cases are similar). As $\gamma_{a,b}$ is formed by some monotone paths joining two points of P , there are three points $g, h, l \in P$ such that h is above $[u, v]$, g, l are under $[u, v]$, $\gamma_{h,g}$ and $\gamma_{h,l}$ are monotone (see Fig. 21 (ii)). Since g, l are under $[u, v]$, the monotone path $\gamma_{g,l}$ is under $[u, v]$. Therefore z belongs to the region formed by $\gamma_{g,l}$, $\gamma_{h,g}$ and $\gamma_{h,l}$. This implies that $z \in G^*$, a contradiction. Thus, G^* is orthogonal convex.

Because E is the smallest connected orthogonal convex set containing P , we conclude that $G^* = E$. Thus E is compact. \square

The proof of Lemma 4

Proof. Taking a point $p \in \text{COCH}(P)$, we consider three cases: p is an extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$, p is on the boundary but is not an extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$ (see Fig. 22) and p is in the interior of $\text{COCH}(P)$ (see Fig. 23).

Case 1: p is an extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$. Then clearly all four orthants of p contain the extreme point p of $\text{COCH}(P)$.

Case 2: p is on the boundary but is not an extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$. According to Lemma 3, p must belong to an \mathcal{O} -support $l(a, b)$ that goes through two extreme points a and b of $\text{COCH}(P)$. If \mathcal{O} -support $l(a, b)$ is a straight line (i.e, $x_a = x_b$ or $y_a = y_b$), then clearly two orthants of p contain the extreme point a and the remaining two orthants contain the extreme point b (see Figure 22 i)). As two some orthants of p contain the extreme point a , without loss

of generality assume that p belongs to the rectilinear half line containing b (see Fig. 22 ii)). Then two orthants of p contain the extreme point b . One of the remaining two orthants contains the extreme point a . We will show that the final orthants of p (e.g., $o_4(p)$ as shown in Fig. 22 ii)) contain at least one other extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$. Indeed, suppose that $o_4(p)$ does not contain any extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$. Then, by Lemma 1(ii), $o_4(p)$ does not contain any point of P . Let c be a smallest y -coordinate point among the points of P in $o_1(p)$, and d be a greatest x -coordinate point among the points of P in $o_3(p)$ (because P is finite, such c and d exist). Then an orthogonal line $l(c, d)$ is an \mathcal{O} -support and the intersection of $l(c, d)$ and $l(a, b)$ consists of two distinct points. Therefore, the connected orthogonal convex hulls of P have semi-isolated points. This is contrary to assumption (A).

Case 3: p is in the interior of $\text{COCH}(P)$. Then the orthants $o_1(p)$, $o_2(p)$, $o_3(p)$, and $o_4(p)$ intersect $\text{COCH}(P) \setminus \{p\}$. Applying the similar argument for $o_4(p)$ in Case 2 to these orthants, we conclude that each orthant contains at least one extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$. \square

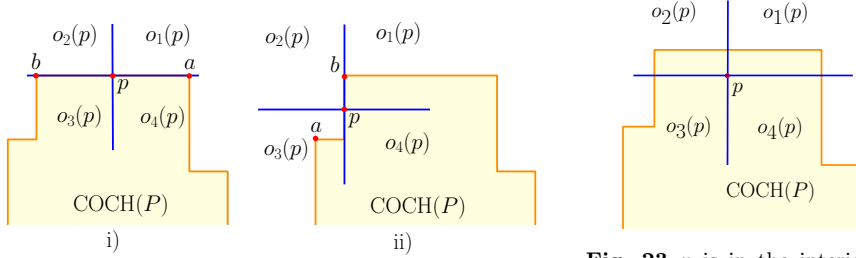


Fig. 22 p lies on the boundary of $\text{COCH}(P)$.

Fig. 23 p is in the interior of $\text{COCH}(P)$.

The proof of Lemma 5

Proof. Let $p \in \mathcal{M}(P)$, there is an its orthant that does not contain any points of $P \setminus \{p\}$. Without loss of generality we assume that $o_2(p)$ does not contain any points of $P \setminus \{p\}$. We will prove that $o_2(p)$ does not contain any points of $\text{COCH}(P) \setminus \{p\}$. We will prove this by contradiction. Indeed, suppose that there exists $u \in o_2(p) \cap (\text{COCH}(P) \setminus \{p\})$. There are two following cases:

- u is an extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$. According to Lemma 1(i), $u \in P$, namely $o_2(p)$ contains a points $u \in P \setminus \{p\}$.
- u is not an extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$. According to Lemma 4, each orthant of u contains at least one extreme point of $\text{COCH}(P)$. Therefore, $o_2(u)$ also contains at least one extreme point, say t , of $\text{COCH}(P)$ and according to Lemma 1(i), $t \in P$. Furthermore, since $u \in o_2(p)$, we have $o_2(u) \subseteq o_2(p)$. It follows that $o_2(p)$ contains the point $t \in P \setminus \{p\}$.

Both cases above contradict the hypothesis that $o_2(p)$ does not contain any points of $P \setminus \{p\}$. Hence, $o_2(p)$ does not contain any points of $\text{COCH}(P) \setminus \{p\}$,

resp.) is greater (less, resp.) than that of c_1 . Consider Case $j = 2$ (the other cases are similar). Take a point $t \in P_{a_1b_1}$, we claim that

Assume the contrary that t is outside the rectangle with the diagonal $[c_1, v_1]$, i.e., t in $o_2(c_1)$ or $P_{a_1c_1}$ or $P_{c_1b_1}$. If $t \in o_2(c_1)$ then contradicts the assumption that c_1 is an extreme point with index 2. If $t \in P_{a_1c_1}$ (or $t \in P_{c_1b_1}$, resp.), i.e., $P_{a_1c_1} \neq \emptyset$ (or $P_{c_1b_1} \neq \emptyset$, resp.), then there exists a farthest point u of $P_{a_1c_1}$ (or $P_{c_1b_1}$, resp.) from the directed orthogonal line from a_1 to c_1 (or from c_1 to b_1 , resp.). According to Proposition 3(i), u is an extreme point with index 2 of $P_{a_1c_1}$ (or $P_{c_1b_1}$, resp.). It follows that $x_{c_1} < x_u < x_{a_1}$ (or $y_{b_1} < y_u < y_{c_1}$), resp.). This contradicts the choice of a_1 and b_1 . Thus (6) holds true. It follows that $\text{dist}(t, v_1) \leq \text{dist}(c_1, v_1)$ and therefore c_1 is the farthest point from the directed orthogonal line $\mathcal{L}^{v_1}(a_1, b_1)$. \square