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Asynchronous deterministic rendezvous in bounded terrains[☆]

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Abstract

Two mobile agents (robots) have to meet in an a priori unknown bounded terrain modeled as a polygon, possibly with polygonal obstacles. Robots are modeled as points, and each of them is equipped with a compass. Compasses of robots may be incoherent. Robots construct their routes, but the actual walk of each robot is decided by the adversary that may, e.g., speed up or slow down the robot. We consider several scenarios, depending on three factors: (1) obstacles in the terrain are present, or not, (2) compasses of both robots agree, or not, (3) robots have or do not have a map of the terrain with their positions marked. The cost of a rendezvous algorithm is the worst-case sum of lengths of the robots' trajectories until they meet. For each scenario we design a deterministic rendezvous algorithm and analyze its cost. We also prove lower bounds on the cost of any deterministic rendezvous algorithm in each case. For all scenarios these bounds are tight.

Keywords: mobile agent, rendezvous, deterministic, polygon, obstacle

1. Introduction

1.1. The problem and the model

Two mobile agents (robots) modeled as points starting at different locations of an a priori unknown bounded terrain have to meet. Let a (*simple*) *polygon* be a closed polygonal chain of line segments in the plane which do not have points in common other than the common vertices of pairs of consecutive segments. These line segments are called the *sides* of the polygon, and the points where two consecutive sides intersect are the polygon's *vertices*. The *perimeter* is the sum of the lengths of all its sides. The *open interior* (\mathcal{P}) of a polygon \mathcal{P} is the region of the plane

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inside \mathcal{P} . The *closed interior* $[\mathcal{P}]$ of a polygon \mathcal{P} is the union of \mathcal{P} and its open interior (\mathcal{P}). A *terrain* \mathcal{T} bounded by polygons $\mathcal{P}_0, \dots, \mathcal{P}_k$, s.t. $\mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_k \subset (\mathcal{P}_0)$, is the region of the plane $[\mathcal{P}_0] \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^k (\mathcal{P}_i)$. \mathcal{P}_0 is the *outer polygon* of \mathcal{T} and $\mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_k$ are the *obstacles* of \mathcal{T} . The union $\bigcup_{i=0}^k \mathcal{P}_i$ is called the *boundary* of the terrain. Observe that the boundary of the terrain is included in it. The *interior* of a terrain \mathcal{T} is equal to the terrain itself minus its boundary. The reader can refer to Figure 1 for an example of a terrain.

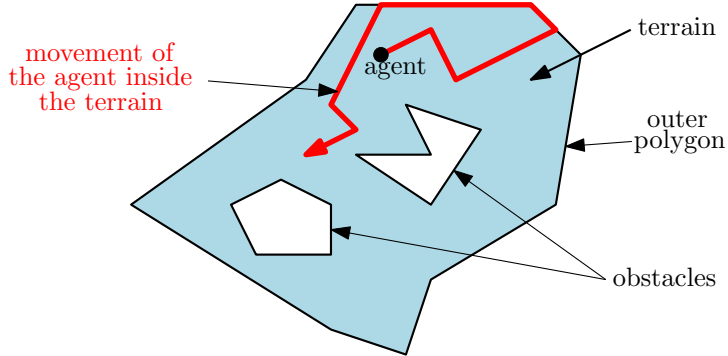


Figure 1: A terrain \mathcal{T}

We assume that each robot has a unit of length (not necessarily the same for the two robots) and a compass. Each robot has its own cartesian coordinate system composed of two lines called the x axis and the y -axis. A *half-line* (or ray) is a closed connected subset of a line which is bounded in one direction, but unbounded in the other. The *positive half-line* of the y -axis is aligned to the North direction of the compass of the robot. The *origin* of the system is the current position of the robot. Compasses of robots may be incoherent. However, we assume that robots have the same (clockwise) orientation for their systems of coordinates. This assumption is made to ensure that the two robots can compute the same cycle passing through two points. An additional tool, which may or may not be available to the robots, is a *map* of the terrain, i.e., the set of coordinates of all the vertices of the boundary of the terrain, plus a binary relation on the vertices indicating if two vertices are the ends of a same side. The map available to a robot is scaled (i.e., it accurately shows the distances), distinguishes the starting positions of this robot and the other one, and is oriented according to the compass of the robot. (Hence maps of different robots may have a different North.)

A (*polygonal*) *path* inside a terrain \mathcal{T} is a path composed of a finite sequence of straight line segments. The *length* of a path is the sum of the lengths of all its segments. A *shortest* path between two points u and v is a path of minimal length linking u and v . There can be several shortest paths between two points if the terrain has obstacles, as illustrated in Figure 2. The *distance* between two points is the length of a shortest path between these points.

We assume that a robot knows if it is at an interior or at a boundary point. In the latter case, it is capable of walking along the boundary in both directions, i.e., clockwise and counterclockwise, around the polygon boundary (see Figure 3). This means that a robot knows the *slope*(s) of the boundary at any boundary point, i.e., it knows angle(s) between the sides containing its current

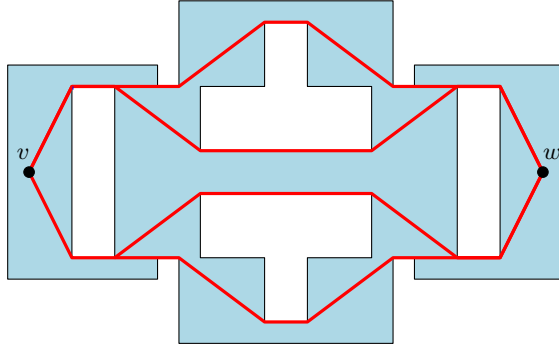


Figure 2: Shortest paths between v and w

location and the positive x -axis in its system of coordinates. However, a robot cannot sense the terrain or the other robot at any vicinity of its current location. Meeting (rendezvous) is defined as the equality of points representing robots at some moment of time.

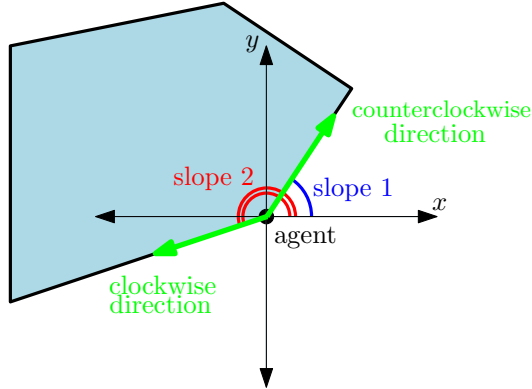


Figure 3: A robot inside a terrain

All our considerations concern deterministic algorithms. The crucial notion is the *route* of the robot which is a finite polygonal path in the terrain. The adversary initially places a robot at some point in the terrain. The robot constructs its route in steps in the following way. At every step, the robot starts at some point v ; in the first step, v is the starting point chosen by the adversary. The robot chooses a slope α , according to its compass, and a distance d . If the segment of length d with slope α starting in v does not intersect the boundary of the terrain, the step ends when the robot reaches point u at distance d from v in the half-line starting at v with slope α . Otherwise, the step ends at the closest point w of the boundary in slope α at a distance $d' < d$ from v (see Figure 4). If the starting point v in a step is in a segment of the boundary of the terrain, the robot has also an option (in this step) to follow this segment of the boundary in any of the two directions (clockwise or counterclockwise) until its end or for some given distance along it. Steps are repeated until rendezvous, or until the route of the robot is completed, i.e., the robot has reached the second end of the last segment of its trajectory.

We consider the *asynchronous* version of the rendezvous problem. The asynchrony of the robots'

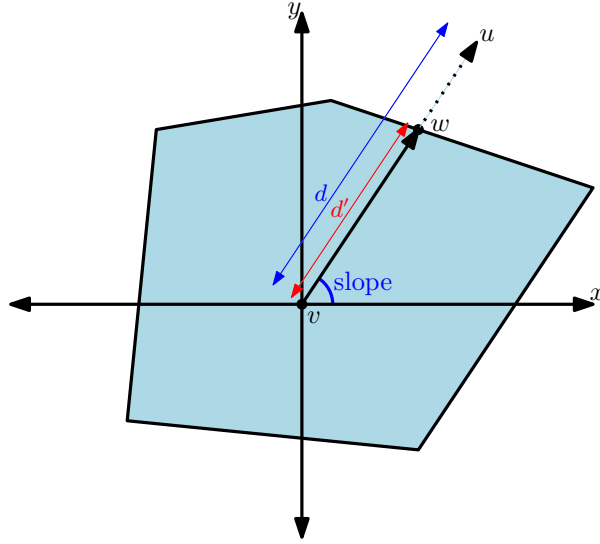


Figure 4: Move step of a robot

movements is captured by the assumption that the actual walk of each robot is decided by the adversary: the movement of the robot can be at arbitrary speed, the robot may sometimes stop or go back and forth, as long as the walk of the robot in each segment of its route is continuous, does not leave it and covers all of it.⁵ More formally, the route in a terrain is a sequence (S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k) of segments, where $S_i = [a_i, a_{i+1}]$ is the segment corresponding to step i . In our algorithms the route is always finite. This means that the robot stops at some point, regardless of the moves of the other robot. We now describe the walk f of a robot on its route. Let $R = (S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k)$ be the route of a robot. Let $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{k+1})$, where $t_1 = 0$, be an increasing sequence of reals, chosen by the adversary, that represent points in time. Let $f_i : [t_i, t_{i+1}] \rightarrow [a_i, a_{i+1}]$ be any continuous function, chosen by the adversary, such that $f_i(t_i) = a_i$ and $f_i(t_{i+1}) = a_{i+1}$. For any $t \in [t_i, t_{i+1}]$, we define $f(t) = f_i(t)$. The interpretation of the walk f is as follows: at time t the robot is at the point $f(t)$ of its route and after time t_{k+1} the robot remains inert. This general definition of the walk and the fact that it is constructed by the adversary captures the asynchronous characteristics of the process. Throughout the paper, *rendezvous* means deterministic asynchronous rendezvous.

Robots with routes R and R' and with walks f and f' meet at time t , if points $f(t)$ and $f'(t)$ are equal. A rendezvous is guaranteed for routes R and R' , if the robots using these routes meet at some time t , regardless of the walks chosen by the adversary. The trajectory of a robot is the sequence of segments on its route until rendezvous. (The last segment of the trajectory of a robot may be either the last segment of its route or any of its segments or a portion of it, if the other robot is met there.) The cost of a rendezvous algorithm is the worst case sum of lengths of segments of trajectories of both robots, where the worst case is taken over all terrains with the

⁵Notice that this definition of the adversary is very strong. In fact, all our positive results (algorithms and their complexity) are valid even with this powerful adversary, and our negative results hold even for a weaker adversary that can only speed up or slow down the robot, without moving it back.

considered values of parameters, and all adversarial decisions.

We consider several scenarios, depending on three factors: (1) obstacles in the terrain are present, or not, (2) compasses of both robots agree, or not, (3) robots have or do not have a map of the terrain. Combinations of the presence or absence of these factors give rise to eight scenarios. For each scenario we design a deterministic rendezvous algorithm and analyze its cost. We also prove lower bounds on the cost of any deterministic rendezvous algorithm in each case. For all scenarios these bounds are tight.

One final clarification has to be made. For all scenarios except those with incoherent compasses and the presence of obstacles (regardless of the availability of a map), robots may be anonymous, i.e., they execute identical algorithms. By contrast, with the presence of obstacles and incoherent compasses, anonymity would preclude feasibility of rendezvous in some situations. Consider a square with one square obstacle positioned at its center. Consider two robots starting at opposite (diagonal) corners of the larger square, with compasses pointing to opposite North directions. If they execute identical algorithms and walk at the same speed, then at each time they are in symmetric positions in the terrain and hence rendezvous is impossible. The only way to break symmetry for a deterministic rendezvous in this case is to equip the robots with distinct labels (which are positive integers), similarly as it was done for synchronous rendezvous in networks in [14, 21, 28]. Hence, this is the assumption we make for the scenarios with the presence of obstacles and incoherent compasses (both with and without a map). For any label μ , we denote by $|\mu|$ the length of the binary representation of the label, i.e., $|\mu| = \lceil \log \mu \rceil + 1$.

1.2. Our results

The cost of our algorithms depends on some of the following parameters (different parameters for different scenarios, see the discussion in Section 4): D is the distance between starting positions of robots in the terrain (i.e., the length of a shortest path between them included in the terrain), P is the perimeter of the terrain, (i.e., the sum of perimeters of all polygons $\mathcal{P}_0, \mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_k$), x is the largest perimeter of an obstacle, and l and L are the smaller and larger labels of the two robots, respectively, for the two scenarios that require different labels, as remarked above., i.e., for the scenarios with the presence of obstacles and incoherent compasses.

Our rendezvous algorithms rely on two different ideas: either meeting in a uniquely defined point of the terrain, or meeting on a uniquely defined cycle. It turns out that a uniquely defined point can be found in all scenarios except those with the presence of obstacles and incoherent compasses. Apart from this exception even anonymous robots can meet. On the other hand, with the presence of obstacles and incoherent compasses, such a uniquely defined point may not exist, as witnessed by the above quoted example of a square with one square obstacle positioned at its center. For these scenarios we resort to the technique of meeting at a common cycle, breaking symmetry by different labels of robots.

We first summarize our results concerning rendezvous when each of the robots is equipped with a map showing its own position and that of the other robot. If compasses of the robots are coherent, then we show a rendezvous algorithm at cost D , which is clearly optimal. Otherwise, if

the terrain does not contain obstacles, then we show an algorithm whose cost is again D , and hence optimal. Finally, with incoherent compasses in the presence of obstacles, we show a rendezvous algorithm at cost $O(D|l|)$; in the latter scenario we show that cost $\Omega(D|l|)$ is necessary for some terrains.

Our results concerning rendezvous without a map are as follows. If compasses of the robots are coherent, then we show a rendezvous algorithm at cost $O(P)$. We also show a matching lower bound $\Omega(P)$ in this case. If compasses of the robots are incoherent, but the terrain does not contain obstacles, then we show a rendezvous algorithm at cost $O(P)$ and again a matching lower bound $\Omega(P)$. Finally, in the hardest of all scenarios (presence of obstacles, incoherent compasses and no map) we have a rendezvous algorithm at cost $O(P + x|L|)$ and a matching lower bound $\Omega(P + x|L|)$. Table 1 summarizes our results.

Rendezvous with a map			Rendezvous without a map		
compasses \ obstacles	coherent	incoherent	compasses \ obstacles	coherent	incoherent
no	D	D	no	$\Theta(P)$	$\Theta(P)$
yes		$\Theta(D l)$	yes		$\Theta(P + x L)$

Table 1: Summary of results

The model considered here is similar to the one in [13]. From results in [13], we can deduce that rendezvous is feasible in any terrain. The robot following the algorithm of [13] will try all possible paths until finding a path leading to the position of the other robot. Each time the robot tries a new path, it repeats its entire previous trajectory. It follows that the cost of this algorithm is at least exponential in the number of paths tried by the robot. Hence, the algorithm of [13] is costly and is not suitable for bounded terrains. Here, our approach is different. We use the topology of the terrain to accelerate the rendezvous and break symmetries between robots. The costs of our current algorithms are tight : we provide matching lower bounds. Another difference with respect to [13] is that we do not assume that the starting points of the robots have rational coordinates or that they see each other at some constant distance.

To the best of our knowledge, our results are the first tight bounds on the cost of asynchronous deterministic rendezvous in the geometric scenario, for arbitrary bounded terrains.

1.3. Related work

The rendezvous problem was first described in [25]. A detailed discussion of the large literature on rendezvous can be found in the excellent book [4]. Most of the results in this domain can be divided into two classes: those considering the geometric scenario (rendezvous in the line, see, e.g., [16, 26], or in the plane, see, e.g., [7, 8]), and those discussing rendezvous in graphs, e.g., [2, 5]. Some of the authors, e.g., [2, 3, 6] consider the probabilistic scenario where inputs and/or rendezvous strategies are random. Randomized rendezvous strategies use random walks in graphs, which were thoroughly investigated and applied also to other problems, such as, e.g.,

graph traversing [1]. A generalization of the rendezvous problem is that of gathering [15, 19, 20], when more than two robots have to meet in one location.

If graphs are unlabeled, deterministic rendezvous requires breaking symmetry, which can be accomplished either by allowing marking nodes or by labeling the robots. Deterministic rendezvous with anonymous robots working in unlabeled graphs but equipped with tokens used to mark nodes was considered e.g., in [22]. In [27] the authors studied the task of gathering many robots with unique labels. In [14, 21, 28] deterministic rendezvous in graphs with labeled robots was considered. However, in all the above papers, the synchronous setting was assumed. Asynchronous gathering under geometric scenarios has been studied, e.g., in [10, 15, 23] in different models than ours: robots could not remember past events, but they were assumed to have at least partial visibility of the scene. The first paper to consider deterministic asynchronous rendezvous in graphs was [11]. The authors concentrated on complexity of rendezvous in simple graphs, such as the ring and the infinite line. Further improvements of the results for the infinite line were proposed in [26]. In [11] the authors also showed feasibility of deterministic asynchronous rendezvous in arbitrary finite connected graphs with *known* upper bound on the size. It was proved later, in [13], that knowing an upper bound on the size was not necessary. Moreover, rendezvous is feasible in infinite graphs such as an infinite grid. The authors also give a rendezvous algorithm for robots in any planar environment (not necessarily bounded). Gathering many robots in a graph, under a different asynchronous model and assuming that the whole graph is seen by each robot, has been studied in [19, 20].

2. Rendezvous with a map

We start by describing the following procedure that finds a unique shortest path from the starting position v of one robot to the other starting position w . The main idea of the procedure is to consider the union \mathcal{S} of all shortest paths from v to w . Then, starting from v , we progress along \mathcal{S} until finding a branching point u . We choose one branch and we repeat this process until reaching w . The unique path computed is composed of all the branches chosen during the execution. The procedure works in all scenarios in which robots have a map of the terrain with their positions indicated.

```

Procedure path UniquePath(point  $v$ , point  $w$ )
1  point  $u := v$ ; path  $p := \{v\}$ ;
2   $\mathcal{S} = \{p_s \mid p_s \text{ is a shortest path between } v \text{ and } w\}$ ;
3  while ( $u \neq w$ ) do
4      Compute  $uw'$ : the result of the translation of  $vw$  by vector  $\vec{vu}$ ;
5       $\mathcal{U} :=$ all paths  $p_s$  of  $\mathcal{S}$  such that the first segment of the subpath of  $p_s$  leading
        from  $u$  to  $w$  is the segment yielding the smallest angle with segment  $uw'$ ;
6       $p' := \bigcap_{p_s \in \mathcal{U}} p_s$ ;
7      extend  $p$  with the connected part of  $p'$  containing  $u$ ;
8       $u :=$  new end of path  $p$ ;
9  return  $p$ ;

```

Lemma 2.1. *Procedure UniquePath computes a unique shortest path from v to w , independent of the robot computing it.*

Proof: All shortest paths between two points inside a terrain can be computed as in [18]. The path computed by the call of $\text{UniquePath}(v, w)$ is a shortest path, since it is composed, by construction, of parts of shortest paths between v and w . The path is computed in a deterministic way without using the compass direction of the robot or the unit of length of the robot. Hence, it is unique. \square

2.1. Coherent compasses

If robots have a map and coherent compasses, then they can easily agree on one of their two starting positions and meet at this point at cost D , which is optimal. This is done by the following Algorithm RVCM (rendezvous with a map and coherent compasses).

Algorithm RVCM

Let v be the northernmost of the two starting positions of the robots. If both robots have the same latitude, let v be the easternmost of them. Let w be the other starting position. The robot starting at v remains inert. The robot starting at w computes the path $p = \text{UniquePath}(w, v)$ and moves along p until v .

Theorem 2.1. *Algorithm RVCM guarantees rendezvous at cost D , for any two robots with a map and coherent compasses, in any terrain.*

Proof: The position v computed by the two robots is the same, since they have coherent compasses. The robots will eventually meet in v . The cost of rendezvous is D , since p is of length D . \square

2.2. Incoherent compasses

Terrains without obstacles.

In an empty polygon there is a unique shortest path between starting positions of the robots [17], and robots with a map can meet in the middle of this path at cost D , which is optimal. This is done by Algorithm RVM (rendezvous with a map, without obstacles).

Algorithm RVM

The robot computes the (unique) shortest path between the starting positions of the two robots. Then, it moves along this shortest path until the middle of it.

Theorem 2.2. *Algorithm RVM guarantees rendezvous at cost D for any two robots with a map, in any terrain without obstacles.*

Proof: In a polygon without obstacles, the shortest path between two points is unique and can be computed as in [17]. The two robots will eventually meet in the middle of this shortest path. The cost of rendezvous is D , since the path is of length D . \square

Terrains with obstacles.

This is the first of the two scenarios where robots cannot always predetermine a meeting point. Therefore they compute a common embedding of a ring on which they are initially situated, and then each robot executes the rendezvous procedure from [11] for this ring. For the sake of completeness, this procedure is briefly described below. It consists of two parts: Label Transformation

and Label Execution. The Label Transformation part takes the binary label μ of a robot and produces a binary label μ^* in the following way. First produce label μ' consisting of a string of $|\mu|$ zeros, followed by a 1 and then followed by the string μ . Formally, μ' is equal to $0^{|\mu|}1\mu$. The label μ^* , called the *transformed label* of the robot, is obtained by replacing in μ' each bit 0 by the sequence 01 and each bit 1 by 10. For instance, if μ is 1001, then μ' is equal to 000011001 and μ^* is equal to 010101011010010110.

The Label Execution part is divided into phases numbered 1,2,... For a given robot, we define the execution of bit 0 (resp. 1) in phase a as performing 3^a steps left (resp. right), according to the robot's local orientation. For a robot with label μ , phase a consists of consecutive executions of all bits of μ^* from left to right.

Using the above procedure, rendezvous with a map, with obstacles is performed by the following Algorithm RVMO. Recall that in this scenario robots have distinct labels, hence the procedure from [11] can be applied. Rendezvous is guaranteed to occur on the ring, but the meeting point depends on the walks of the robots determined by the adversary.

Algorithm RVMO

Phase 1: computation of the embedding¹ \mathcal{R} of a ring of size 4.

Let v be the starting position of the robot and let w be the starting position of the other robot. Each robot computes the embedding \mathcal{R} of a ring, composed of four nodes v, a, w and b , where a is the midpoint of $\text{UniquePath}(v, w)$, b is the midpoint of $\text{UniquePath}(w, v)$, and the four edges are the respective halves of these paths.

Phase 2: rendezvous on \mathcal{R} .

This phase consists in applying the above described rendezvous procedure from [11] for ring \mathcal{R} , whose size (four) is known to the robots.

Theorem 2.3. *Algorithm RVMO guarantees rendezvous at cost $O(D|l|)$ for arbitrary two robots with a map, in any terrain.*

Proof: Let a_1 and a_2 be the two robots that have to meet. The embedding \mathcal{R} of the ring is the same for the two robots by Lemma 2.1. The algorithm from [11] guarantees rendezvous and has complexity expressed in terms of the total number of edge traversals by the robots before rendezvous occurs, equal to $O(n|l|)$, where n is the number of nodes of the ring and l is the smaller of the two labels of the robots. Since the ring has size four and each of its edges has length $D/2$, the total cost of rendezvous is $O(D|l|)$. \square

The following lower bound shows that the cost of Algorithm RVMO cannot be improved for some terrains. Indeed, it implies that for all $D > 0$, there exists a polygon with a single obstacle, for which the cost of any rendezvous algorithm for two robots, starting at distance D , is $\Omega(D|l|)$.

Theorem 2.4. *For any rendezvous algorithm A , for any $D > 0$, and for any integers $k_2 \geq k_1 > 0$, there exist two labels l_1 and l_2 of lengths at most k_1 and at most k_2 , respectively, and a polygon with a single obstacle of perimeter $2D$, such that algorithm A executed by robots with labels l_1 and l_2 starting at distance D , requires cost $\Omega(Dk_1)$. This holds even if the two robots have a map.*

¹This embedding is not necessarily simple, it may intersect itself.

Proof: The idea of the proof is based on an argument from [14]. For $y > 0$, we consider a terrain \mathcal{T} that is a hexagon of side $y + 2$ with one hexagonal obstacle of side y with the same center. The two robots start at positions u and v in \mathcal{T} , as depicted in Figure 5. The compasses of robots point in opposite directions. Observe that $D = 3y$. We call *slices* the six trapezoids bounded by two corresponding parallel sides of the two hexagons and by the segments linking the corresponding vertices of the hexagons. To avoid ambiguity, we say that a robot in the segment shared by two slices is in the first of them in clockwise order. Note that robots start in two different slices with two slices in between.

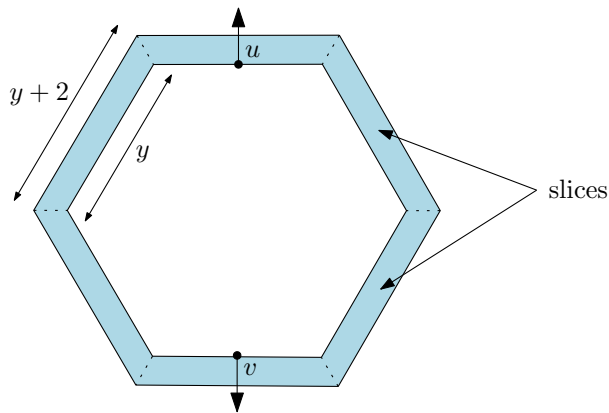


Figure 5: Terrain \mathcal{T}

Fix a rendezvous algorithm A . We assume that both robots always move at the same constant speed. We divide the execution of algorithm A into periods during which each robot traverses a distance y . During any period, a robot can only visit the slice where it starts the period and one of the two adjacent slices. The behavior of a robot with label l , running algorithm A , yields the following sequence of integers from the set $\{-1, 0, 1\}$, called the behavior code. The i -th term of the behavior code of a robot is -1 if the robot ends period i in the slice preceding (in clockwise order) the slice in which it began the period, 1 if it ends period i in the slice following it (in clockwise order), and 0 if it begins and ends period i in the same slice. Due to the symmetry of the figure and to opposite compasses a robot with a given label has the same behavior code if it starts at point u or at point v . Note that two robots with the same prefix of length k_1 of their behavior codes cannot accomplish rendezvous during the first k_1 periods, since they start separated by at least two slices, and they cannot be in the same slice during any period.

There are less than $3^{k_1/2} < 2^{k_1}$ behavior codes of length at most $k_1/2$. Hence it is possible to pick two distinct labels l_1 and l_2 of lengths at most k_1 , respectively, such that the prefix of length $k_1/2$ of their behavior codes is the same. For these labels, algorithm A does not accomplish rendezvous before both robots have travelled a distance $yk_1/2 = \Omega(Dk_1)$. \square

3. Rendezvous without a map

3.1. Coherent compasses

It turns out that robots can recognize the outer polygon of the terrain even without a map. Hence, if their compasses are coherent, they can identify a uniquely defined point on this boundary and meet in this point. This is done by Algorithm RVC (rendezvous with coherent compasses) at cost $O(P)$.

Algorithm RVC

From its starting position v , the robot follows the half-line α pointing to the North until it hits the boundary of the terrain. It is then on the boundary of a polygon \mathcal{P} (i.e., either the external boundary of the terrain or the boundary of an obstacle), it traverses the entire boundary of \mathcal{P} . Then, it computes the point u which is the farthest point from v in $\mathcal{P} \cap \alpha$. It goes around \mathcal{P} until reaching u again and progresses on α , if possible. If this is impossible, the robot recognizes that it went around the boundary of \mathcal{P}_0 . It then computes the northernmost points in \mathcal{P}_0 . Finally, it traverses the boundary of \mathcal{P}_0 until reaching the easternmost of these points.

Theorem 3.1. *Algorithm RVC guarantees rendezvous at cost $O(P)$ for any two robots with coherent compasses, in any terrain.*

Proof: The first phase of the algorithm that consists in reaching \mathcal{P}_0 and making the tour of the boundary of \mathcal{P}_0 costs at most $3P$, since the boundary of each polygon of the terrain is traversed at most twice and the total length of parts of α inside the terrain is at most P . Reaching the rendezvous point costs at most P . The robots will eventually meet in the easternmost of the northernmost points of \mathcal{P}_0 , since they have coherent compasses and this point is unique. \square

The following lower bound shows that the cost of Algorithm RVC is asymptotically optimal, for some polygons even without obstacles. This lower bound $\Omega(P)$ holds even if the distance D between starting positions of robots is bounded and if their compasses are coherent.

Theorem 3.2. *There exists a polygon of an arbitrarily large perimeter P , for which the cost of any rendezvous algorithm for two robots with coherent compasses starting at any distance $D > 0$, is $\Omega(P)$.*

Proof: Consider the polygon \mathcal{P}' obtained by attaching to each side of a regular k -gon, whose center is at distance $D/8$ from its boundary, a rectangle of length $3D/8$ and of height equal to the side length of the k -gon. The polygon \mathcal{P} is the polygon obtained by gluing two copies of \mathcal{P}' by the small side of one of the rectangles, as depicted in Fig. 6. Let P be the perimeter of the polygon \mathcal{P} . We choose $k = \Theta(P/D)$. There are two types of rectangles in \mathcal{P} , two *passing* ones (they share one side) and the $2k - 2$ *normal* ones.

Consider all rotations of the polygon \mathcal{P} around its center of symmetry by angles $2\pi i/k$, for $i = 0, \dots, k-1$. We will prove that any deterministic rendezvous algorithm requires cost $\Omega(P)$ in at least one of the rotated polygons. Each robot starts in the center of a different k -gon. We say that a robot has *penetrated* a rectangle if it has moved at distance $D/8$ inside the rectangle. In order to accomplish rendezvous, at least one robot has to penetrate a passing rectangle. Each time one robot penetrates a rectangle, the adversary chooses a rotation, so that all previously penetrated

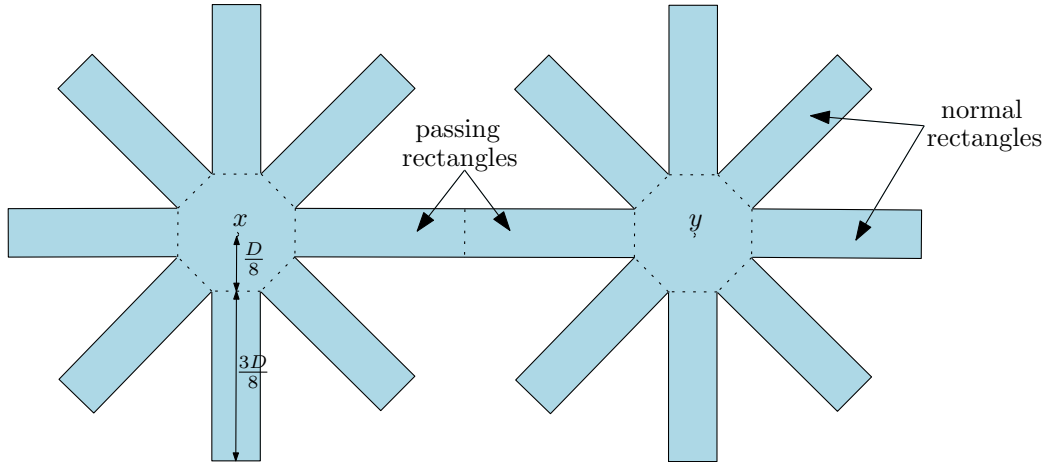


Figure 6: Polygon \mathcal{P}

rectangles, including the current one, are normal rectangles. This choice is coherent with the knowledge previously acquired by the robots, since normal rectangles are undistinguishable from each other and a robot needs to penetrate a rectangle in order to distinguish its type. Hence, the two robots have to penetrate a total of $k - 1$ rectangles before the adversary cannot rotate the figure to prevent the penetration of a passing rectangle. It follows that at least one of the robots has to traverse a total distance of $\Omega(kD)$ before meeting. We have $\Omega(kD) = \Omega(P)$, in view of $k = \Theta(P/D)$. \square

3.2. Incoherent compasses

Terrains without obstacles.

In this section, we use the notion of medial axis, proposed by Blum [9], to define a unique point of rendezvous inside the terrain. Observe that we cannot use the centroid for the rendezvous point since, as we also consider non-convex terrains, the centroid is not necessarily inside the terrain. The *medial axis* $M(\mathcal{P})$ of a polygon \mathcal{P} is defined as the set of points inside \mathcal{P} which have more than one closest point on the boundary of \mathcal{P} (see Figure 7 for an example). More formally, the medial axis of \mathcal{P} is the set of all centres of maximal inscribed circles, i.e., circles that are contained in \mathcal{P} but not inside other circles contained in \mathcal{P} . Actually, $M(\mathcal{P})$ is a planar tree contained in \mathcal{P} , in which nodes are linked by either straight-line segment or arcs of parabolas [24]. We define the *medial point* of a polygon \mathcal{P} as either the central node of $M(\mathcal{P})$ or the middle of the central edge of $M(\mathcal{P})$, depending on whether $M(\mathcal{P})$ has a central node or a central edge (see Figure 7 for an example). Remark that the medial point of \mathcal{P} is unique and is inside \mathcal{P} . The medial axis of a polygon \mathcal{P} can be computed as in [12]. Algorithm RV (rendezvous without obstacles, without a map and with possibly incoherent compasses) determines the unknown (empty) polygon and guarantees meeting in its medial point.

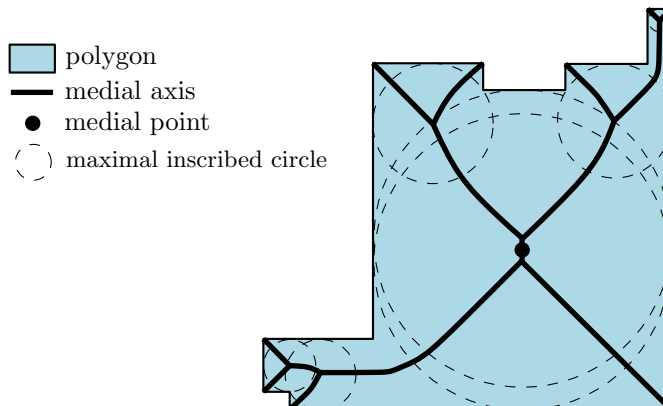


Figure 7: Medial axis of a polygon

Algorithm *RV*

At its starting position, the robot chooses an arbitrary half-line α which it follows until it hits the boundary of the polygon \mathcal{P}_0 . It traverses the entire boundary of \mathcal{P}_0 and computes the medial point v of \mathcal{P}_0 . Then, it moves to v by a shortest path and stops.

Theorem 3.3. *Algorithm *RV* guarantees rendezvous at cost $O(P)$ for any two robots, in any terrain without obstacles.*

Proof: The cost of reaching the boundary of \mathcal{P} and completing a tour of it is at most $2P$. The robot can compute the medial point of the polygon and reach it at cost at most P . The two robots will eventually meet at the medial point, since it is unique. \square

The lower bound from Theorem 3.2 shows that the cost of Algorithm *RV* cannot be improved for some polygons.

Terrains with obstacles.

Our last rendezvous algorithm, Algorithm *RVO*, works for the hardest of all scenarios: rendezvous with obstacles, no map, and possibly incoherent compasses. Here again it may be impossible to predetermine a meeting point. Thus robots identify a common cycle and meet on this cycle. The difference between the present setting and that of Algorithm *RVMO*, where a map was available, is that now robots may start outside of the common cycle and have to reach it before attempting rendezvous on it. (Hence, in particular, the robots cannot use directly the procedure for rendezvous in a ring from [11], as was done in Algorithm *RVMO*.) Also the common cycle is different: rather than being composed of two shortest paths between initial positions of the robots (a map seems to be needed to find such paths), it is the boundary of a (possible) obstacle \mathcal{O} in which the medial point of the outer polygon is hidden. These changes have consequences for the cost of the algorithm. The fact that the medial point of the outer polygon has to be found and the obstacle \mathcal{O} has to be reached is responsible for the summand P in the cost. The only bound on the perimeter of this obstacle is x , where x is the largest perimeter of an obstacle. Finally, the fact that the adversary may delay the robot with the smaller label and force the other robot to make its tours of obstacle \mathcal{O} before the robot with the smaller label even reaches the obstacle, is

responsible for the summand $x|L|$, rather than $x|l|$, in the cost.

A *cycle* is a polygonal path whose both extremities are the same point. A *tour* of a cycle \mathcal{C} is any sequence of all the segments of \mathcal{C} in either clockwise or counterclockwise order starting from a vertex of \mathcal{C} . By extension, a *partial tour* of \mathcal{C} is a path which is a subsequence of a tour of \mathcal{C} with the first or the last segment of the subsequence possibly replaced by a subsegment of it.

Algorithm *RVO*

Phase 1: Computation of the medial point of \mathcal{P}_0
 At its starting position z , the robot chooses an arbitrary half-line α whose origin is z . The robot follows α as far as possible, i.e., it moves along α until it hits the boundary of the terrain. When it hits for the i -th time the boundary of a polygon \mathcal{P} , it traverses the entire boundary of \mathcal{P} . Then, it computes the point w_i which is the farthest point from z in $\mathcal{P} \cap \alpha$. It goes around \mathcal{P} until reaching w_i again and progresses on α , if possible. If this is impossible, the robot recognizes that it went around the boundary of \mathcal{P}_0 . The robot computes the medial point v of \mathcal{P}_0 .

Phase 2: Moving to the medial point of \mathcal{P}_0
 Let u be the current position of the robot and v be the medial point of \mathcal{P}_0 computed in the previous phase. The robot follows the half-line β , with origin u and passing through v , as far as possible. Similarly as in the first phase of the algorithm, when the robot hits for the i -th time a polygon \mathcal{P} , it traverses the entire boundary of \mathcal{P} . Then, it computes the point w_i which is the farthest point from u in $\mathcal{P} \cap \overline{uv}$. It goes around \mathcal{P} until reaching w_i again and progresses on β , if possible. If this is impossible and if the point v has not been reached, the robot recognizes that v is inside an obstacle \mathcal{O} , and executes phase 3. If the robot reaches v , it does not enter phase 3 of the algorithm and stops.

Phase 3: Rendezvous around the medial obstacle of the terrain
 The robot goes around the obstacle \mathcal{O} until it reaches a vertex s . The robot produces the modified label μ^\dagger consisting of the binary representation of the label μ of the robot followed by a 1 and then followed by $|\mu|$ zeros ($\mu^\dagger = \mu 1 0^{|\mu|}$). For instance, if $\mu = 10010$ then $\mu^\dagger = 10010100000$. This phase consists of $|\mu^\dagger|$ stages. In stage i , the robot completes two tours of the boundary of \mathcal{O} , starting and ending in s , clockwise if the i -th bit of μ^\dagger is 1 and counterclockwise otherwise.

Figure 8 gives an example of the trajectory of a robot executing Algorithm *RVO*.

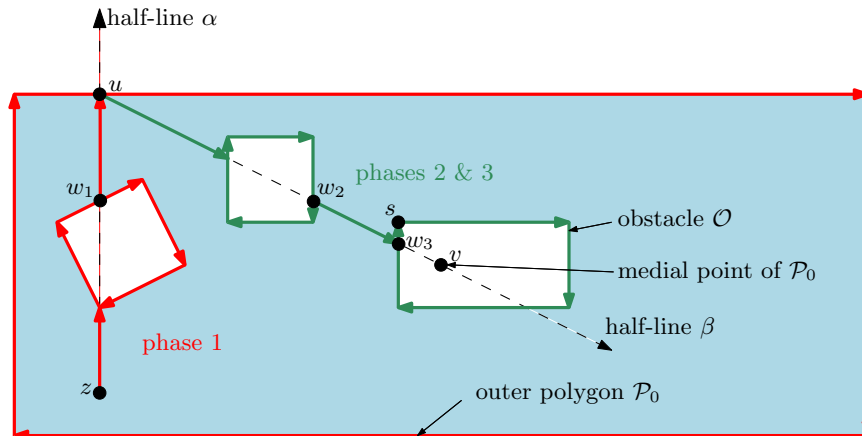


Figure 8: Execution of Algorithm *RVO*

Let $\overline{u_1 u_2}$ and $\overline{u_2 u_3}$ be consecutive segments in clockwise order (resp. counterclockwise order) of a cycle. For a given walk f of a robot a , we say that the robot *traverses in a clockwise way*

(resp. *in a counterclockwise way*) a vertex u_2 of a cycle at time t if $f(t) = u_2$ and there exist positive reals ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 and points y and z such that $y = f(t - \epsilon_1)$ is an internal point of $\overline{u_1u_2}$, $z = f(t + \epsilon_2)$ is an internal point of $\overline{u_2u_3}$ and the robot walks in $\overline{u_1u_2} \cup \overline{u_2u_3}$ during the time period $[t - \epsilon_1, t + \epsilon_2]$.

Before establishing the correctness and cost of Algorithm *RVO*, we need to show the following two lemmas.

Lemma 3.1. *Consider two robots on cycle \mathcal{C} . Suppose that one robot executes a tour of \mathcal{C} in some sense of rotation, starting and ending in v . If during the same period of time, the other robot either traverses v for the first time in the other sense of rotation or does not traverse it at all, then the two robots meet.*

Proof: Let f_1 and f_2 be the walks of robots a_1 and a_2 , respectively. Let t' be the moment when robot a_1 starts its tour of \mathcal{C} at some vertex v . Let t'' be the moment when robot a_1 ends its tour, if robot a_2 does not traverse v in the same period of time, or, otherwise, the first moment after t' when robot a_2 traverses v . We cut cycle \mathcal{C} at vertex v obtaining the path p with extremities v' and v'' that are copies of v . The walks f_1 and f_2 , during the time period $[t', t'']$, can be transposed in p , since neither of the two robots traverses v during the period (t', t'') . For any $t \in [t', t'']$, let $d_i(t)$ be the distance of robot a_i from v' at time t , counted on p . The two functions d_1 and d_2 are continuous, since the walks of both robots on p are continuous. Notice that, since the first traversal of v by robot a_2 may be only in the sense of rotation opposite to that of robot a_1 , we have $f_1(t') = v'$ and either $f_2(t'') = v'$ or $f_1(t'') = v''$. Let $\delta(t) = d_1(t) - d_2(t)$. We have $\delta(t') = d' \leq 0$ and $\delta(t'') = d'' \geq 0$, since $d_1(t') = 0$ and $d_1(t'') \geq d_2(t'')$. The function δ is thus a continuous function from the interval $[t', t'']$ onto some interval $[c', c'']$, where $c' \leq d'$ and $c'' \geq d''$. Since 0 belongs to the interval $[c', c'']$, there must exist a moment t in the interval $[t', t'']$, for which $\delta(t) = 0$. For this moment, $f_1(t) = f_2(t)$ and the rendezvous occurs. \square

Lemma 3.2. *Consider two robots on a cycle \mathcal{C} and let $k \geq 0$ be an integer. If a robot executes either a partial tour of \mathcal{C} followed by at most k tours of \mathcal{C} , or at most k tours of \mathcal{C} followed by a partial tour of \mathcal{C} , while the second robot executes $k + 2$ tours of \mathcal{C} , then the two robots meet.*

Proof: Assume for contradiction that the two robots never meet. During each tour of \mathcal{C} by the second robot, the first robot has to traverse the starting position v of the second robot, in view of Lemma 3.1. Hence, the first robot has traversed $k + 2$ times vertex v . Notice that a robot cannot traverse v without executing a tour of \mathcal{C} as v is an extremity of a segment of its route. Hence the first robot has completed at least $k + 1$ complete tours of \mathcal{C} starting and ending at v . Finally, the first robot has started executing its tours at point v , a contradiction. \square

Theorem 3.4. *Algorithm *RVO* guarantees rendezvous at cost $O(P + x|L|)$ for any two robots in any terrain for which x is the largest perimeter of an obstacle.*

Proof: Let a_1 and a_2 be the two robots that have to meet. The first phase of the algorithm that consists in reaching \mathcal{P}_0 and making the tour of the boundary of \mathcal{P}_0 costs at most $3P$, since the

boundary of each polygon of the terrain is traversed at most twice and the total length of parts of α inside the terrain is at most P . For the same reason as in phase 1, the total cost of phase 2 is at most $3P$.

If the medial point of \mathcal{P}_0 is inside the terrain, then the robots meet at the end of phase 2 at total cost of at most $12P$. Otherwise, both robots eventually enter phase 3 of the algorithm and they are on the boundary of the obstacle \mathcal{O} containing the medial point of \mathcal{P}_0 . The cost follows from the fact that each robot travels a distance $O(x|L|)$ in phase 3. Indeed, each robot executes at most $2|L| + 1$ stages and each stage costs at most $2x$. Hence it remains to show that rendezvous occurs in this case as well.

Assume for contradiction that the two robots never meet. Notice that the modified label l^* cannot be the suffix of the modified label L^* . Indeed, if $|l^*| = |L^*|$ then the two labels are different since $l \neq L$, and otherwise the second part of l^* , consisting of 1 followed by $|l|$ zeros, cannot be the suffix of L^* . Hence, there exists an index i such that the $(|l^*| - i)$ -th bit of l^* differs from the $(|L^*| - i)$ -th bit of L^* . We call *important* stages the $(|l^*| - i)$ -th stage of the robot with label l and the $(|L^*| - i)$ -th stage of the robot with label L .

For $j = 1, 2$, let t_j be the moment when robot a_j enters its important stage and let t' be the first moment when both robots have finished the execution of the algorithm. Suppose by symmetry that $t_1 \leq t_2$, i.e., robot a_1 was the first to enter its important stage. Then a_2 must have entered its important stage during the first tour of the important stage of a_1 . Otherwise, robot a_2 would have completed $2i + 2$ tours between t_2 and t' , while robot a_1 would have completed at most $2i + 1$ tours. Hence, the two robots would have met in view of Lemma 3.2. Hence, from the time t_2 , robot a_2 completes one tour in some sense of rotation, starting and ending at a vertex v , while robot a_1 either traverses v for the first time in the other sense of rotation or does not traverse it at all. Hence by Lemma 3.1, the two robots meet. \square

The following result gives a lower bound matching the cost of Algorithm RVO.

Theorem 3.5. *There exist terrains for which the cost of any rendezvous algorithm is $\Omega(P + x|L|)$. This holds for arbitrarily small $D > 0$.*

Proof: Since our lower bound is expressed as a sum, in order to prove it, we show two examples, one in which the first summand is as small as possible and the bound is equal to the other summand, and another, in which the converse is true. The first example uses the polygon depicted in Figure 5: P must be at least x and in this example we have $P = \Theta(x)$ and the lower bound is $\Omega(x|L|)$. Indeed, consider two integers $m_2 \leq m_1$. By Theorem 2.4, applied for $k_1 = k_2 = m_1$, and for any rendezvous algorithm A , there exists a label L of length m_1 , such that the sum of lengths of segments of the route produced by the execution of A by an agent a_1 with label L is $\Omega(xm_1)$. The adversary chooses as the initial position of the second agent a_2 any point outside a path p of length $\Theta(xm_1)$, which is a prefix of the route of agent a_1 . This point can be chosen arbitrarily close to the initial position of the first agent. The label of agent a_2 is of length m_2 . Suppose that the start of agent a_2 is delayed by the adversary and occurs when p is entirely traversed by agent a_1 . The two agents do not meet during this traversal of p by the first agent and so the cost of rendezvous is $\Omega(xm_1) = \Omega(x|L|)$. The second example is given by the proof of Theorem 3.2.

Indeed, in this example there are no obstacles and hence $x = x|L| = 0$, while the lower bound is $\Omega(P)$. \square

4. Discussion of parameters

We presented rendezvous algorithms, analyzed their cost and proved matching lower bounds in all considered scenarios. However, it is important to note that the formulas describing the cost depend on the chosen parameters in each case. All our results have the following form. For a given scenario we choose some parameters (among D, P, x, l, L), show an algorithm whose cost in any terrain is $O(f)$, where f is some simple function of the chosen parameters, and then prove that for some class of terrains any rendezvous algorithm requires cost $\Omega(f)$, which shows that the complexity of our algorithm cannot be improved in general, for the chosen parameters.

This yields the question which parameters should be chosen. In the case of complexities D and $\Theta(P)$, this choice does not seem controversial, as here D and P are very natural parameters, and the only ones in these simple cases. However, for the two scenarios with incoherent compasses and with the presence of obstacles, there are several other possible parameters, and their choice may raise a doubt. As mentioned in the introduction, in these two scenarios, distinct labels of robots are necessary to break symmetry, since rendezvous is impossible for anonymous robots. Hence any rendezvous algorithm has to use labels l and L as inputs, and thus the choice of these labels as parameters seems natural. By contrast, the choice of parameter x may seem more controversial. Why do we want to express the cost of a rendezvous algorithm in terms of the largest perimeter of an obstacle? Are there other natural choices of parameter sets? What are their implications?

Let us start by pondering the second question. It is not hard to give examples of other natural choices of parameters for the two scenarios with incoherent compasses and with the presence of obstacles. For example, in the hardest scenario (without a map), we could drop parameter x and try to express the cost of the same Algorithm RVO only in terms of D, P, l , and L . Since $x \leq P$, we would get $O(P|L|)$ instead of $O(P + x|L|)$. Incidentally, as in our lower bound example of terrains we have $x = \Theta(P)$, this new complexity $O(P|L|)$ is optimal for the same reason as the former one.

Another possibility would be adding, instead of dropping a parameter. We could, for example, add the parameter P_e which is the length of the external perimeter of the terrain, i.e., the perimeter of polygon \mathcal{P}_0 . Then it becomes natural to modify Algorithm RVO as follows. The first two phases are the same. In the third phase, the robot goes around obstacle \mathcal{O} and compares its perimeter to P_e . If the perimeter of \mathcal{O} is smaller (or equal), then the algorithm proceeds as before, and if it is larger, then the robot goes back to the boundary of \mathcal{P}_0 and executes Phase 3 on this boundary instead of the boundary of \mathcal{O} . The new algorithm has complexity $O(P + \min(x, P_e)|L|)$. Its complexity is again optimal because in our lower bound example we can choose the parameter $y = \min(x, P_e)$ and enlarge the largest of the two boundaries by lengthy but thin zigzags. Thus we can preserve the lower bound $\Omega(P + \min(x, P_e)|L|)$, even when x and P_e differ significantly.

The reason why we chose parameters D, P, l, L , and x instead of just D, P, l and L , is that complexity $O(P + x|L|)$ shows a certain continuity of the complexity of Algorithm RVO with

respect to the sizes of obstacles: when the largest obstacle decreases, this complexity approaches $O(P)$ and it becomes $O(P)$ if there are no obstacles. In this case our algorithm coincides with Algorithm RV. This is not the case with complexity $O(P|L|)$. On the other hand, this choice coincides with $O(P + \min(x, P_e)|L|)$ in many important cases, for example for convex obstacles (as then we have $x < P_e$).

It is then natural to ask what happens if we add parameter x in the scenario with incoherent compasses and with the presence of obstacles but with the map. Obviously we could still use Algorithm RVO and get complexity $O(P + x|L|)$. However, our lower bound argument in this scenario gives in fact only $\Omega(D + \min(x, D)|l|)$. In our example we had $D = \Theta(x)$ but we only get $\Omega(D + x|l|)$ even if D is much larger than x . On the other hand, if D is much smaller than x , we can only get the lower bound $\Omega(D|l|)$ because it matches the complexity of *RVMO* in this case. Hence it is natural to ask if there exists a rendezvous algorithm with cost $O(D + \min(x, D)|l|)$ for arbitrary terrains in this scenario. We leave this as an open question.

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