Embedding into the rectilinear plane in optimal $O(n^2)$ time

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Abstract. In this paper, we present an optimal $O(n^2)$ time algorithm for deciding if a metric space $(X,d)$ on $n$ points can be isometrically embedded into the plane endowed with the $l_1$-metric. It improves the $O(n^2 \log^2 n)$ time algorithm of J. Edmonds (2008). Together with some ingredients introduced by Edmonds, our algorithm uses the concept of tight span and the injectivity of the $l_1$-plane. A different $O(n^2)$ time algorithm was recently proposed by D. Eppstein (2009).

1. Introduction

Deciding if a finite metric space $(X,d)$ admits an isometric embedding or an embedding with a small distortion into a given geometric space (usually $\mathbb{R}^k$ endowed with some norm-metric) is a classical question in distance geometry which has some applications in theoretical computer science, visualization, and data analysis. The first question can be answered in polynomial time if $\mathbb{R}^k$ is endowed with the Euclidean metric due to classical results of Menger and Schönberg [6]. On the other hand, by a result of Frechet [6], any metric space can be isometrically embedded into some $\mathbb{R}^k$ with the $l_\infty$-metric. However, it is NP-hard to decide if a metric space isometrically embeds into some $\mathbb{R}^k$ endowed with the $l_1$ (alias rectilinear or Manhattan) metric [2, 6]. More recently, Edmonds [9] established that it is even NP-hard to decide if a metric space embeds into $\mathbb{R}^3$ with $l_\infty$-metric (a similar question for $\mathbb{R}^3$ with $l_1$-metric is still open). In case of $\mathbb{R}^2$, both $l_1$- and $l_\infty$-metrics are equivalent because the second metric can be obtained from the first one by a rotation of the plane by $45^\circ$ and then by a shrink by a factor $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$. The embedding problem for the rectilinear plane was investigated in the papers [3, 12], which ultimately show that a metric space $(X,d)$ embeds into the $l_1$-plane if and only if any subspace with at most six points does [3] (a similar result for embedding into the $l_1$-grid was obtained in [4]). As a consequence, it is possible to decide in polynomial time if a finite metric space embeds into the $l_1$-plane. Edmonds [9] presented an $O(n^2 \log^2 n)$ time algorithm for this problem and very recently we learned that Eppstein [10] described an optimal $O(n^2)$ time algorithm (for earlier algorithmic results, see also [5]). In this note, independently of [10], we describe a simple and optimal algorithm for this embedding problem, which is different from that of [10].

We conclude this introductory section with a few definitions. In the sequel, we will denote by $d_1$ or by $\| \cdot \|_1$ the $l_1$-metric and by $d_\infty$ the $l_\infty$-metric. A metric space $(X,d)$ is isometrically embeddable into a host metric space $(Y,d')$ if there exists a map $\varphi : X \to Y$ such that
A retraction \( \varphi \) of a metric space \((Y,d)\) is an idempotent nonexpansive mapping of \(Y\) into itself, that is, \(\varphi^2 = \varphi : Y \to Y\) with \(d(\varphi(x), \varphi(y)) \leq d(x, y)\) for all \(x, y \in Y\). The subspace of \(Y\) induced by the image of \(Y\) under \(\varphi\) is referred to as a retract of \(Y\). Let \((X,d)\) be a metric space. The (closed) ball and the set \(I\) are the sets \(B(x, r) = \{ p \in X : d(x, p) \leq r \}\) and \(S(x, r) = \{ p \in X : d(x, p) = r \}\), respectively. The interval between two points \(x, y\) of \(X\) is the set \(I(x, y) = \{ z \in X : d(x, y) = d(x, z) + d(z, y) \}\). Any ball of \((\mathbb{R}^k, d_{\infty})\) is an axis-parallel cube. A subset \(S\) of \(X\) is gated if for every point \(x \in X\) there exists a (unique) point \(x' \in S\), the gate of \(x\) in \(S\), such that \(x' \in I(x, y)\) for all \(y \in S\) [8]. The intersection of gated sets is also gated. A geodesic in a metric space is the isometric image of a line segment. A metric space is called geodesic (or Menger-convex) if any two points are the endpoints of a geodesic.

For a point \(p\) of \(\mathbb{R}^2\), denote by \(Q_1(p), Q_2(p), Q_3(p),\) and \(Q_4(p)\) the four quadrants of the plane defined by the vertical and horizontal lines passing via the point \(p\) and labeled counterclockwise. Any interval \(I_1(x, y)\) of the rectilinear plane \((\mathbb{R}^2, d_1)\) is an axis-parallel rectangle which can be reduced to a horizontal or vertical segment. Any ball of \((\mathbb{R}^2, d_1)\) is a lozenge obtained from an axis-parallel square by a rotation by \(45^\circ\) degrees. In the rectilinear plane, any halfplane defined by a vertical or a horizontal line is gated. As a consequence, axis-parallel rectangles, quadrants, and strips of \((\mathbb{R}^2, d_1)\) are gated as intersections of such halfplanes.

2. Tight spans

A metric space \((X, d)\) is called hyperconvex (or injective) [1, 11] provided that any family of closed balls \(B(x_i, r_i)\) with centers \(x_i\) and radii \(r_i, i \in I\), satisfying \(d(x_i, x_j) \leq r_i + r_j\) for all \(i, j \in I\) has a nonempty intersection, that is, \((X, d)\) is a geodesic space such that the closed balls have the (finite) Helly property. Since the closed balls of \((\mathbb{R}^k, d_{\infty})\) are axis parallel boxes, the metric spaces \((\mathbb{R}^k, d_{\infty})\) and \((\mathbb{R}^2, d_1)\) are hyperconvex. It is well known [1] that \((X, d)\) is hyperconvex if and only if it is an absolute retract, that is, \((X, d)\) is a retract of every metric space into which it embeds isometrically. As shown by Isbell [11] and Dress [7], for every metric space \((X, d)\) there exists the smallest injective space \(T(X)\) extending \((X, d)\), referred to as the injective hull [11], or tight span [7] of \((X, d)\). The tight span of a finite metric space \((X, d)\) can be defined as follows. Let \(T(X)\) be the set of functions \(f\) from \(X\) to \(\mathbb{R}\) such that

1. for any \(x, y \in X\), \(f(x) + f(y) \geq d(x, y)\), and
2. for each \(x \in X\), there exists \(y \in X\) such that \(f(x) + f(y) = d(x, y)\).

One can interpret \(f(x)\) as the distance from \(f\) to \(x\). Then (1) is just the triangle inequality. Taking \(x = y\) in (1), we infer that \(f(x) \geq 0\) for all \(x \in X\). The requirement (2) states that \(T(X)\) is minimal, in the sense that no value \(f(x)\) can be reduced without violating the triangle inequality. We can endow \(T(X)\) with the \(l_{\infty}\)-distance: given two functions \(f\) and \(g\) in \(T(X)\), define \(\rho(f, g) = \max |f(x) - g(x)|\). The resulting metric space \((T(X), \rho)\) is injective and \((T(X), \rho)\) is called the tight span of \((X, d)\). There is an isometric embedding of \(X\) into its tight span \(T(X)\). Moreover, any isometric embedding of \((X, d)\) into an injective metric space \((Y, d')\) can be extended to an isometric embedding of \((T(X), \rho)\) into \((Y, d')\), i.e., \((T(X), \rho)\) is the smallest injective space into which \((X, d)\) can be isometrically embedded.

In general, the tight span of a finite metric space is hard to visualize. Nevertheless, if \(|X| \leq 5\), Dress [7] completely described \(T(X)\) via the interpoint-distances of \(X\). For example, if \(|X| = 3\), say \(X = \{x, y, z\}\), then \(T(X)\) consists of three line segments joined at a (Steiner)
point, with the points of \( X \) at the ends of the arms (see Fig. 1 (a)). The lengths of these segments are \( \alpha_x, \alpha_y, \alpha_z \), where \( \alpha_x := (y, z)_x = 1/2(d(x, y) + d(x, z) - d(y, z)) \) is the Gromov product of \( x \) with the couple \( y, z \) (\( \alpha_y \) and \( \alpha_z \) are defined in a similar way). Notice that one of the values \( \alpha_x, \alpha_y, \alpha_z \) may be 0, in this case one point is located between two others. If \(|X| = 4\), then the generic form of \( T(X) \) is a rectangle \( R(X) \) endowed with the \( l_1 \)-metric, together with a line segment attached by one end to each corner of this rectangle (see Fig. 1 (b)). The four points of \( X \) are the outer ends of these segments. The lengths of these segments and the sides of the rectangle can be computed in constant time from the pairwise distances between the points of \( X \); for exact calculations see [7]. It may happen that \( R(X) \) degenerates into a segment or a point. Finally, there are three canonical types of tight spans of 5-point metric spaces precisely described in [7] (see also Fig. 2 for an illustration). Each of them consists of four or five rectangles, five segments, and eventually one rectangular triangle, altogether constituting a 2-dimensional cell complex. All sides of the cells can be computed in constant time as described in [7]. It was also noticed in [7] that if for each quadruplet \( X' \) of a finite metric space \( (X, d) \) the rectangle \( R(X') \) is degenerated, then \( (X, d) \) isometrically embeds into a (weighted) tree and its tight span \( T(X) \) is a tree-network.

From the construction of tight spans of 3- and 4-point metric spaces immediately follows that any metric space \( (X, d) \) with at most 4 points and its tight span \( (T(X), \rho) \) can be isometrically embedded into the \( l_1 \)-plane as shown in Fig. 1 (b). This is no longer true for metric spaces on 5 points and their tight spans: to embed, some cells of the tight span must be degenerated. If \(|X| = 4\) and the rectangle \( R(X) \) is non-degenerated, one can easily show that \( R(X) \) isometrically embeds into the \( l_1 \)-plane only as an axis-parallel rectangle. Therefore, if additionally the four line segments of \( T(X) \) are also non-degenerated, then up to a rotation of the plane by 90°, \( X \) and \( T(X) \) admit exactly two isometric embeddings into the \( l_1 \)-plane. If one corner
of \( R(X) \) is a point of \( X \) and the embedding of the rectangle \( R(X) \) is fixed, then there exist three types of isometric embeddings of \( X \) and \( T(X) \) into the rectilinear plane: two segments of \( T(X) \) are embedded as axis-parallel segments and the third one as a segment whose slope has to be determined. Analogously, if two incident corners of \( R(X) \) are points of \( X \), the two segments of \( T(X) \) are either embedded as axis-parallel segments, or one as a horizontal or vertical segment and another one as segment whose slope has to be determined. Note also that from the combinatorial characterization of finite metric subspaces of the \( l_1 \)-plane presented in [3] immediately follows that a tree-metric \((X, d)\) is isometrically embeddable into the \( l_1 \)-plane if and only if the tree-network \( T(X) \) has at most four leaves. Finally note that since \((\mathbb{R}^2, d_1)\) is injective, by minimality property of tight spans, \( T(X) \) is an isometric subspace of the \( l_1 \)-plane for any finite subspace \( X \) of \( \mathbb{R}^2 \).

3. Algorithm and its correctness

3.1. Outline of the algorithm. Let \((X, d)\) be a metric space with \( n \) points, where \( X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \). We will call the points of \( X \) terminals. Our algorithm first finds in \( O(n^2) \) time a quadruplet \( P^o \) of \( X \) whose tight span \( T(P^o) \) contains a nondegenerated rectangle \( R(P^o) \). If such a quadruplet does not exists, then \((X, d)\) is a tree-metric and therefore \( T(X) \) is a tree-network. By what has been noticed above, if this tree-network contains more than four leaves, then \((X, d)\) cannot be isometrically embedded into the \( l_1 \)-plane, otherwise such an embedding can be easily derived. Given the required quadruplet \( P^o \), we consider any isometric embedding of \( P^o \) and of its tight span into the \( l_1 \)-plane as illustrated in Fig. 4 and partition the remaining points of \( X \) into groups depending on their location in the regions of the plane defined by the rectangle \( R(P^o) \) and the segments of \( T(P^o) \); see Fig. 5. The exact location of points of \( X \) in these regions is uniquely determined except the four quadrants defined by \( R(P^o) \). At the second stage, we replace the quadruplet \( P^o \) by another quadruplet \( P \) by picking one furthest from \( R(P^o) \) point of \( X \) in each of these quadrants. We show that the rectangle \( R(P^o) \) is contained in the rectangle \( R(P) \), moreover, two opposite corners of \( R(P) \) are terminals of \( P \) and for any isometric embedding \( \varphi_0 \) of \( P \) and \( T(P) \) into the \( l_1 \)-plane, the quadrants defined by these two corners are empty (do not contains other terminals of \( X \)). Again the location of the points of \( X \) in all regions of the plane except the two opposite quadrants is uniquely determined. To compute the location of the remaining terminals in these two quadrants we adapt the second part of the algorithm of Edmonds [9]: we construct on these terminals a graph as in [9], partition it into connected components, separately determine the location of the points of each component, and then combine them into a single chain of components in order to obtain a global isometric embedding \( \varphi \) of \((X, d)\) extending \( \varphi_0 \) or to decide that it does not exist.

Now, we briefly overview the algorithms of Edmonds [9] and Eppstein [10]. Edmonds [9] starts by picking two diametral points \( p, q \) of \( X \). These two points can be embedded into the \( l_1 \)-plane in an infinite number of different ways. Each embedding defines an axis-parallel rectangle \( \Pi \) whose half-perimeter is exactly \( d(p, q) \). Using the distances of \( p \) and \( q \) to the remaining points of \( X \), Edmonds computes a list \( \Delta \) of linear size of possible values of the sides of the rectangle \( \Pi \). For each value \( \delta \) from this list, the algorithm of [9] decides in \( O(n^2) \) time if there exists an isometric embedding of \( X \) such that one side of the rectangle \( \Pi \) has length \( \delta \). For this, it partitions the points of \( X \) into groups, depending on their location in the regions of the plane determined by \( \Pi \). In order to fix the positions of points in one of these regions, Edmonds [9]
defines a graph whose connected components are also used in our algorithm. While sweeping through the list $\Delta$, the algorithm of [9] update this graph and its connected components in an efficient way. Notice that the second part of our algorithm is similar to that from [9], but instead of trying several sizes of the rectangle $\Pi$, we use the tight spans to provide us with a single rectangle, ensuring some rigidity in the embedding of the remaining points. The algorithm of Eppstein [10] is quite different in spirit from our algorithm and that of Edmonds [9]. Eppstein [10] first incrementally constructs in $O(n^2)$ time a planar rectangular complex which is the tight span of the input metric space $(X,d)$ or decide that the tight span of $X$ is not planar. In the second stage of the algorithm, he decides in $O(n^2)$ time if this planar rectangular complex can be isometrically embedded into the $l_1$-plane or not.

3.2. Computing the quadruplet $P^o$. For each $i = 1, \ldots, n$, set $X_i := \{x_1, \ldots, x_i\}$. We start by computing the tight span of the first four points of $X$. If this tight span is not degenerated then we return the quadruplet $X_4$ as $P^o$. Now suppose that the tight span of the first $i - 1$ points of $X$ is a tree-network $A_{i-1}$ with at most four leaves. This means that $A_{i-1}$ contains one or two ramification points (which are not necessarily points of $X$) having degree at most 4, all remaining terminals of $X_{i-1}$ are either leaves or vertices of degree two of $A_{i-1}$. We say that two terminals of $X_{i-1}$ are consecutive in $A_{i-1}$ if the segment connecting them in $A_{i-1}$ does not contain other points of $X_{i-1}$. Note that $A_{i-1}$ contains at most $n + 4$ of consecutive pairs. For each pair $x_j, x_k$ of consecutive terminals of $X_{i-1}$ we compute the Gromov product $\alpha_{x_j} := (x_j, x_k)_{x_i} = 1/2(d(x_i, x_j) + d(x_i, x_k) - d(x_j, x_k))$ of $x_i$ with $\{x_j, x_k\}$. Let $(a, b)$ be the pair of consecutive points of $X_{i-1}$ minimizing the Gromov product $\alpha_{x_j} = (a, b)_{x_i}$. Let $c$ be the point of the segment $[a, b]$ of $A_{i-1}$ located at distance $\alpha_a := (b, a)_a$ from $a$ and at distance $\alpha_b := (a, x_i)_b$ from $b$ ($c$ may coincide with one of the points $a$ or $b$).

Denote by $A_i$ the tree-network obtained from $A_{i-1}$ by adding the segment $[x_i, c]$ of length $\alpha_{x_i}$. By running Breadth-First-Search on $A_i$, rooted at $x_i$, we check if $d_{A_i}(x_i, x_j) = d(x_i, x_j)$ for any terminal $x_j$ of $X_i$. If this holds for all $x_j \in X_i$, then the tight span of $X_i$ is the tree-network $A_i$. If $A_i$ contains more than 4 leaves, then we return the answer “not” and the algorithm halts. Otherwise, if $i = n$, then we return the answer “yes” and an isometric embedding of $X$ and its tight span $A_n$ in the $l_1$-plane, else, if $i < n$, we consider the next point $x_{i+1}$. Finally, if $x_j$ is the first point of $X_i$ such that $d_{A_i}(x_i, x_j) \neq d(x_i, x_j)$, then we assert that the tight span of the quadruplet $\{a, b, x_i, x_j\}$ is non-degenerated and we return it as $P^o$. Suppose by way of contradiction that $T(P^o)$ is a tree. Since $A_{i-1}$ realizes $X_{i-1}$ and $T(P^o)$ realizes $P^o$, the subtree of $A_{i-1}$ spanned by the terminals $a, b$, and $x_j$ is isometric to the subtree of $T(P^o)$ spanned by the same terminals. On the other hand, $T(P^o)$ contains a point $c'$ located at distance $\alpha_{x_i}$ from $x_i$, and $\alpha_{a}$ from $x_i, a$, and $b$, respectively. This means that $T(P^o)$ is isometric to the subtree of $A_i$ spanned by the vertices $x_i, a, b$, and $x_j$, (see Fig. 3) contrary to the assumption that $d_{A_i}(x_i, x_j) \neq d(x_i, x_j)$. Hence, this inequality implies indeed that $T(P^o)$ is not a tree. Finally note that dealing with a current point $x_i$ takes time linear in $i$, thus the whole algorithm for computing the quadruplet $P^o$ runs in $O(n^2)$ time.

3.3. Classification of the points of $X$ with respect to the rectangle of $T(P^o)$. Let $P^o = \{p^o_1, p^o_2, p^o_3, p^o_4\}$ be the quadruplet whose tight span $T(P^o)$ is non-degenerated. Let $R^o$ be one of the two possible isometric embeddings of the rectangle $R(P^o)$ of $T(P^o)$ and consider a complete or a partial isometric embedding of $T(P^o)$ such that $R(P^o)$ is embedded as $R^o$. Denote by $Q^o_1, Q^o_2, Q^o_3, Q^o_4$ the four (closed) quadrants defined by the four consecutive corners.
3.4. The quadruplet $P$ and its properties. Let $P = \{p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4\}$ be the quadruplet of $X$, where $p_i$ is a point of $X$ which must be located in the quadrant $Q_i$, and is maximally distant from the corner $q^0_i$ of $R^0$. As we established above, the tight span of $P$ is non-degenerated, moreover the rectangle $R(P)$ contains the rectangle $R(P^0)$. As we also noticed, there exists a constant number of ways in which we can isometrically embed $T(P)$ into the $l_1$-plane. Further we proceed in the following way: we pick an arbitrary isometric embedding $\varphi_0$ of $T(P)$ and try to extend it to an isometric embedding $\varphi$ of the whole metric space $(X, d)$ in the $l_1$-plane. If this is possible for some embedding of $T(P)$, then the algorithm returns the answer “yes” and an isometric embedding of $X$, otherwise the algorithm returns the answer “not”. Let $R$ denote the image of $R(P)$ under $\varphi_0$.
We call a terminal $p_i$ of $P$ fixed by the embedding $\varphi_0$ if either $\varphi_0(p_i)$ is a corner of the rectangle $R$ or the segment of $T(P)$ incident to $p_i$ is embedded by $\varphi_0$ as a horizontal or a vertical segment; else we call $p_i$ free. The embedding of a free terminal $p_i$ is not exactly determined but is restricted to a segment $s_{p_i}$ consisting of the points of the quadrant defined by $q_i$ and having the same $l_1$-distance to $q_i$. We call the terminals $p_i, p_{i+1(\text{mod} 4)}$ incident and the terminals $p_i, p_{i+2(\text{mod} 4)}$ opposite. From the isometric embedding of $T(P)$ we conclude that at most one of two incident terminals can be free. Moreover, if a terminal $p_i$ of $P$ is fixed but is not a corner of $R$, then at least one of the two terminals incident to $p_i$ is also fixed. If all four tips of $T(P)$ are non-degenerated, then all four terminals of $P$ are fixed. If only three tips of $T(P)$ are non-degenerated then at most one terminal of $P$ is free, all remaining terminals are fixed. If only two tips of $T(P)$ are non-degenerated, then either they correspond to incident terminals, one of which is fixed and another one is free or to two opposite terminals which are both free. Finally, if only one tip of the tight span is non-degenerated, then it corresponds to a free terminal, all other terminals of $P$ are corners of $R$ and therefore are fixed (see Fig. 4 for the occurring possibilities).

Denote by $\Pi$ the smallest axis-parallel rectangle containing $R$ and the fixed terminals of $P$; Fig. 5 illustrates $\Pi$ for two cases from Fig. 4 (if a terminal is free, then the respective corner of $R$ is also a corner of $\Pi$). Let $q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4$ be the corners of $\Pi$ labeled in such a way that $q_i$ is the corner of $R$ corresponding to the point $p_i$ and to the corner $q_i^\circ$ of $R^\circ$. Denote by $Q_1, Q_2, Q_3,$ and $Q_4$ the quadrants of $\mathbb{R}^2$ defined by the corners of $\Pi$ and by $S_1, S_2, S_3,$ and $S_4$ the remaining half-infinite strips. Again, as in the case of the quadruplet $P^\circ$, by building the tight spans of $P \cup \{p\}$ for all terminals $p \in X \setminus P$, we can compute in total linear time
the distances from all such points \( p \) to the corners of \( R \) (and to the corners of \( \Pi \)). From these four distances and the distances of \( p \) to the terminals of the quadruplet \( P \) we can determine in which of the nine regions \( Q_1, Q_2, Q_3, Q_4, S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4, \Pi \) of the plane must be located \( p \). Moreover, if \( p \) is assigned to the rectangle \( \Pi \) or to one of the four half-strips \( S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4 \), then we can conclude that the intersection of the four spheres centered at the terminals of \( P \) and having the distances from respective points to \( p \) as radii is either empty or a single point. The sphere centered at a free terminal \( p_i \) is needed only to decide the location of \( p \) in the quadrant \( Q \) of the plane having the same apex \( a \) as the quadrant \( Q_i \) and which is opposite to \( Q_1 \) (\( a \) is a corner of \( \Pi \)). But in this case, instead of considering the sphere of radius \( d(p, p_i) \) centered at \( \varphi_0(p_i) \) we consider the sphere of radius \( d(p, p_i) - \|\varphi_0(p_i) - a\|_1 \) and centered at \( a \) : indeed, both these spheres have the same intersection with the quadrant \( Q \).

We are now ready to prove the following property of the quadruplet \( P \) : among the four quadrants \( Q_1, Q_2, Q_3, \) and \( Q_4 \) defined by \( P \), two opposite quadrants are empty, i.e., they do not contain terminals of \( X \ \setminus \ P \). First note that by inspecting the different cases listed in Fig. 4 one can check that the two neighbors \( p_{i-1} \text{ (mod 4)} \) and \( p_{i+1} \text{ (mod 4)} \) of a free point \( p_i \in P \) are both fixed; let say \( p_1 \) and \( p_3 \) are fixed. Now, suppose by way of contradiction that a terminal \( q \in X \ \setminus \ P \) must be located in the quadrant \( Q_1 \). This means that its gate in the rectangle \( \Pi \) is the corner of \( \Pi \) corresponding to \( p_1 \). Since in any embedding \( \varphi \) of \( X \) that extends the chosen embedding of \( T(P^0) \) the terminal \( p_1 \) is located in \( Q_1 \), we deduce that \( Q_1(\varphi(p_1)) \subseteq Q_1^\varphi \). On the other hand, the inclusion \( Q_1 \subseteq Q_1(\varphi(p_1)) \) follows directly from the definition of \( Q_1 \) and the fact that \( p_1 \) is fixed. Now, from the inclusions \( Q_1 \subseteq Q_1(\varphi(p_1)) \subseteq Q^\varphi_1 \), we obtain that \( q \in Q_1^\varphi \), and since \( q \) is closer to \( p_1 \) than to \( q_1^\varphi \), we get a contradiction with the choice of \( p_1 \), establishing that indeed \( Q_1 \) does not contain any point of \( X \ \setminus \ P \). The same argument shows that \( Q_3 \) is empty as well. Note that actually we proved that any quadrant \( Q_4 \) corresponding to a fixed terminal \( p_i \) of \( P \) is empty.

### 3.5. Locating in the non-empty quadrants \( Q_1 \) and \( Q_3 \)

As we have showed in previous subsection, any isometric embedding \( \varphi \) of \((X, d)\) extending the embedding \( \varphi_0 \) of \( T(P^0) \) locates each terminal \( p \) of \( X \ \setminus \ P \) in one and the same of the nine regions defined by \( \Pi \). Moreover, if \( p \) must be located in the rectangle \( \Pi \) or in one of the four half-strips \( S_1, \ldots, S_4 \), then this location \( \varphi(p) \) is uniquely determined from the distances to the terminals of \( P \) and to the corners of \( \Pi \). We also established that only one or two opposite quadrants defined by \( \Pi \), say \( Q_1 \) and \( Q_3 \), can host terminals of \( X \ \setminus \ P \); see Fig. 6. We will show now how to find the exact location of the set.
Figure 7. \( \varphi(u) \) and \( \varphi(v) \) are fixed by \( \varphi(p^*) \) and \( \varphi(p_*) \)

Figure 8. \( \varphi(v) \) is fixed by \( \varphi(p^*) \)

\( X_1 \) of terminals assigned to the quadrant \( Q_1 \) (the set \( X_3 \) of terminals which must be located in \( Q_3 \) is treated analogously).

Note that independently of how an isometric extension \( \varphi \) of \( \varphi_0 \) is chosen, for each terminal \( u \in X_1 \), the \( l_1 \)-distance \( \| \varphi(u) - q_1 \|_1 \) from the location of \( u \) to the corner \( q_1 \) of \( \Pi \) is one and the same, which we denote by \( \Delta_u \). The value of \( \Delta_u \) can be easily computed because \( q_1 \) lies between \( \varphi(u) \) and \( \varphi(p_i) \) for any \( p_i \in P \); for example, we can set \( \Delta_u := d(u, p_1) - \| \varphi_0(p_1) - q_1 \|_1 \). Then the set of all possible locations \( \varphi(u) \) of \( u \in X_1 \) is the level segment \( s_u \) which is the intersection of \( Q_1 \) with the sphere \( S(q_1, \Delta_u) \) of radius \( \Delta_u \) centered at \( q_1 \).

To compute the locations of the terminals of \( X_1 \) in the quadrant \( Q_1 \), we adapt to the \( l_1 \)-plane the definition of a graph (which we denote by \( G_1 = (X_1, E_1) \)) defined by Edmonds [9] in the \( l_\infty \)-plane. Two terminals \( u, v \in X_1 \) are adjacent in \( G_1 \) if and only if \( d(u, v) > |\Delta_u - \Delta_v| \). Equivalently, \( u, v \in X_1 \) with \( \Delta_u \leq \Delta_v \) are adjacent in \( G_1 \) iff \( u \) cannot be located between \( q_1 \) and \( v : \varphi(u) \notin I_1(q_1, \varphi(v)) \). Denote by \( C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_k \) the connected components of the graph \( G_1 \). They have the following useful properties established in Lemmata 3-5 of [9]:

1. Each component \( C_i \) is rigid, i.e., once the location of any point \( u \) of \( C_i \) has been fixed, the locations of the remaining points of \( C_i \) are also fixed (up to symmetry with respect to the line parallel to the bisector of \( Q_1 \) and passing via \( u \));

2. The components \( C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_k \) of the graph \( G_1 \) can be numbered so that the points of each \( C_i \) appear consecutively in the list of points \( u \in X_1 \) sorted in increasing order of their distances \( \Delta_u \) to \( q_1 \);

3. For a component \( C_i \) of \( G_1 \), let \( B_i \) be the smallest axis-parallel rectangle containing the set of points \( \{ \varphi_i(u) : u \in C_i \} \) for an isometric embedding \( \varphi_i \) of \( (C_i, d) \) in the \( l_1 \)-plane. Let \( b_i \) be the upper right corner of \( B_i \). Then the embedding of \( C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_k \) preserves the distances between all pairs of points lying in different components if and only if for every pair of consecutive components \( C_i \) and \( C_{i+1} \), the rectangle \( B_{i+1} \) lies entirely in the quadrant \( Q_1(b_i) \).

The location in the quadrant \( Q_1 \) of some terminals of \( X_1 \) (and therefore of the connected components containing them) can be fixed by terminals already located in the two half-strips incident to \( Q_1 \). We say that a terminal \( u \in X_1 \) is fixed by a terminal \( p \) already located in \( S_1 \cup S_2 \) if the intersection of the segment \( s_u \) with the sphere \( S(\varphi(p), d(p, u)) \) is a single point. Note that if \( u \in X_1 \) is fixed by a terminal located in \( S_1 \), then \( u \) is also fixed by the upmost terminal \( p^* \).
located in this half-strip. Analogously, if $u \in X_1$ is fixed by a terminal of $S_4$, then $u$ is also fixed by the rightmost terminal $p_u$ located in $S_3$. Therefore by considering the intersections of the segments $s_u, u \in X_1$, with the spheres $S(\varphi(p^*), d(p^*, u))$ and $S(\varphi(p_u), d(p_u, u))$ we can decide in linear time which terminals of $X_1$ are fixed by $p^*$ and $p_u$ and find their location in $Q_1$ (for an illustration, see Fig. 7). According to property (1), if a terminal of a connected component of $G_1$ is fixed, then the location of the whole component is also fixed (up to symmetry). Let $C_j$ be the connected component of $G_1$ containing the furthest from $q_1$ terminal $u \in X_1$ fixed by $p^*$ or $p_u$, say by $p^*$ (therefore the location of $C_j$ is fixed). We assert that all terminals of $C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_{j-1}$ are also fixed by $p^*$. Indeed, pick such a terminal $v$. From property (2) we conclude that $\Delta_v = \Delta_u$ and from the definition of $G_1$ we deduce that $v$ must be located in the axis-parallel rectangle $I_1(q_1, \varphi(u))$, and therefore below $u$. Since $u$ is fixed by $p^*$, $u$ must be located below $p^*$, whence $v$ also must be located below $p^*$. We can easily see that the intersection of $s_v$ with the sphere $S(\varphi(p^*), d(p^*, v))$ is a single point, i.e. $v$ is also fixed by $p^*$ (see Fig. 8).

It remains to locate in $Q_1$ the terminals of the remaining components $C_{j+1}, C_{j+2}, \ldots, C_k$. We compute separately an isometric embedding of each component $C_i$ for $i = j+1, \ldots, k$. For this, we fix in an arbitrary way the location of the first two points $u, v$ of $C_j$ in the segments $s_u$ and $s_v$ so that to preserve the distance $d(u, v)$ (the terminals of $C_i$ are ordered by their distances to $q_1$). By property (1) of [9], the location of the remaining points of $C_i$ is uniquely determined and each point $w$ of $C_i$ will be located in its level segment $s_w$. Let $\varphi_i$ be the resulting embedding of $C_i$. Denote by $B_i$ the smallest axis-parallel rectangle (alias box) containing the image $\varphi_i(C_i)$ of $C_i$. Let $a_i$ and $b_i$ denote the lower left and the upper right corners of $B_i$. Note that $a_i$ belongs to the $l_1$-interval between $q_1$ and the image $\varphi_i(u)$ of any terminal $u$ of $C_i$, while the $l_1$-interval between $q_1$ and $b_i$ will contain the images of all terminals of $C_i$. Therefore if we set $\Delta_{a_i} := \Delta_u - \|a_i - \varphi_i(u)\|_1$ and $\Delta_{b_i} := \Delta_u + \|\varphi(u) - b_i\|_1$, where $u$ is any terminal of $C_i$, then in all isometric embeddings of $(C_i, d)$ in which all terminals $u \in C_i$ are located on $s_u$, the points $a_i$ and $b_i$ must be located on the level segments $s_{a_i}$ and $s_{b_i}$, defined as the intersections of the quadrant $Q_1$ with the spheres $S(q_1, \Delta_{a_i})$ and $S(q_1, \Delta_{b_i})$.

By properties (2) and (3) of [9], in order to define a single isometric embedding of the components $C_{j+1}, \ldots, C_k$ we now need to assemble the boxes $B_{j+1}, \ldots, B_k$ (by moving their terminals along the level segments) in such a way that for two consecutive components $C_i$ and $C_{i+1}$, the box $B_{i+1}$ lies entirely in the quadrant $Q_1(b_i)$. We assert that this is possible if and only if for each pair of consecutive boxes $B_i, B_{i+1}, i = j, j + 1, \ldots, k - 1$, the inequality $\Delta_{b_i} \leq \Delta_{a_{i+1}}$.
holds. Indeed, if $\Delta_{b_i} \leq \Delta_{a_{i+1}}$, then translating $B_{i+1}$ along the segment $s_{a_{i+1}}$, we can locate its corner $a_{i+1}$ in the quadrant $Q_1(b_i)$ and thus satisfy the embedding requirement. Conversely, if $\Delta_{b_i} > \Delta_{a_{i+1}}$ holds, then $a_{i+1}$ cannot belong to the quadrant $Q_1(b_i)$ independently of the positions of $a_{i+1}$ and $b_i$ on their level segments. This local condition depends only of the values of $\Delta_{a_i}, \Delta_{b_i}$ and is independent of the actual location of the boxes $B_i, i = 1, \ldots, k$. As a result, the algorithm that embeds the boxes $B_{j+1}, \ldots, B_k$ is very simple. For each $i = j, \ldots, k - 1$, we compute the box $B_{i+1}$ and the values of $\Delta_{a_{i+1}}$ and $\Delta_{b_{i+1}}$. If $\Delta_{a_{i+1}} < \Delta_{b_i}$ for some $i$, then return the answer “there is no isometric embedding of $(X, d)$ extending the embedding $\varphi_0$ of $T(P)$”. Otherwise, having already located the box $B_1$, by what has been shown above, the intersection of the quadrant $Q_1(b_1)$ with the level segment $s_{a_{i+1}}$ is non-empty. Therefore we can translate $B_{j+1}$ in such a way that its lower left corner $a_{i+1}$ becomes a point of this intersection.

In this way, we obtain an embedding of $C_{j+1}, \ldots, C_k$ and $B_{j+1}, \ldots, B_k$ satisfying the conditions (1)-(3), thus an isometric embedding of the metric space $(\bigcup_{i=j+1}^k C_i, d)$ in $Q_1$. Analogously, by constructing the graph $G_3 = (X_3, E_3)$ and its components, either we obtain a negative answer or we return an isometric embedding of the metric space defined by the non-fixed components of $G_3$ in the quadrant $Q_3$. Denote by $\varphi$ the embedding of $X$ which coincides with $\varphi_0$ on $P$, with these two embeddings on the non-fixed components of $G_1$ and $G_3$, and with the already computed fixed locations of the terminals assigned to $\Pi$, to the half-strips $S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4$, and to the fixed connected components of the graphs $G_1$ and $G_3$. In $O(n^2)$ we test if $\varphi$ is an isometric embedding of $(X, d)$ into the $l_1$-plane. If the answer is negative, then we return “there is no isometric embedding of $(X, d)$ extending the embedding $\varphi_0$ of $T(P)$”, otherwise we return $\varphi$ as an isometric embedding. The algorithm returns the global answer “not” if for all possible embeddings $\varphi_0$ of $T(P)$ it returns the negative answer. From what we established follows that in this case $(X, d)$ is not isometrically embeddable into the $l_1$-plane.

3.6. Algorithm and its complexity. We conclude the paper with a description of the main steps of the algorithm and their complexity.

Algorithm Embedding into the $l_1$-plane

**Input:** A metric space $(X, d)$ on $n$ points

**Output:** An isometric embedding $\varphi$ of $(X, d)$ into $(\mathbb{R}^2, d_1)$ or the answer “not” if it does not exist

**Step 1.** Find a quadruplet $P^0$ of $X$ whose tight span contains a rectangle. If $P^0$ does not exist, then $T(X)$ is a tree. If $T(X)$ has more than 4 leaves, then return “not”, else return an embedding of $T(X)$ and $(X, d)$.

**Step 2.** Pick any embedding of $T(P^0)$ and for each terminal of $X \setminus P^0$ determine in which of the nine regions of the plane it must be located. Using this partition of $X \setminus P^0$, define the quadruplet $P$.

**Step 3.** Embed $P$ and its tight span $T(P)$ into the $l_1$-plane in all possible different ways. Try to extend each of these embeddings to an isometric embedding of $(X, d)$ following the rules (a)-(g). If all of these attempts return the answer “not”, then return the answer “not”, else return one of the obtained embeddings.

(a) Given an embedding $\varphi_0$ of $T(P)$, for each terminal $u$ of $X \setminus P$ determine in which of the nine regions defined by the rectangle $\Pi$ will be located $u$ in any isometric embedding extending $\varphi_0$;

(b) Locate the terminals assigned to the rectangle $\Pi$ and the four half-strips $S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4$;

(c) Define the sets of terminals $X_1$ and $X_3$ assigned to the quadrants $Q_1$ and $Q_3$, construct the graphs $G_1 = (X_1, E_1)$ and $G_3 = (X_3, E_3)$ and their connected components;

(d) Find the terminals of $X_1$ fixed by $p^*, p_2$ and compute their location in $Q_1$. Do a similar thing for $X_3$;

(e) Find an isometric embedding of each component $C_i$ of $G_1$ not containing already fixed terminals so that its terminals are located on their level segments. Do a similar thing for $G_3$;

(f) Test if the free components $C_{j+1}, \ldots, C_k$ of $G_1$ satisfy the condition $\Delta_{b_i} \leq \Delta_{a_{i+1}}$ for $i = j+1, \ldots, k-1$.

If not, then return the answer “not”, else locate consecutively the boxes $B_{j+1}, \ldots, B_k$ in such a way
that $a_{i+1}$ is located in $Q_i(b_i) \cap s_{a_{i+1}}$ and fix in this way the position of all terminals of $X_i$. Do a similar thing for the free components of $G$.

(g) Verify if the resulting embedding of $X$ extending $\varphi_0$ is an isometric embedding of $(X, d)$. If “yes”, then return it as a resulting isometric embedding, otherwise return the answer “there is no isometric embedding of $(X, d)$ extending the embedding $\varphi_0$”.

In Subsection 3.2 we established that the quadruplet $P^o$, if it exists, can be computed in $O(n^2)$ time. If $P^o$ does not exists, then the tree-network $A_n$ (constructed within the same time bounds) is the tight span of $(X, d)$. Embedding $A_n$ (if it has at most 4 leaves) in the $l_1$-plane can be easily done in linear time. As shown in Subsection 3.3, Step 2 can be implemented in linear time. There exists a constant number of ways in which the quadruplet $P$ and its tight span can be isometrically embedded in the $l_1$-plane. Therefore, to show that Step 3 has complexity $O(n^2)$, it suffices to estimate the total complexity of the steps (a)-(g) for a fixed embedding $\varphi_0$ of $T(P)$. Step (a) is similar to Step 2, thus its complexity is linear. The exact location of each terminal in the half-strips or in $\Pi$ is determined as the intersection of two spheres, therefore step (b) is also linear. Defining the graph $G_1$ and computing its connected components can be done in $O(|X_1|^2)$ time. Thus step (c) has complexity $O(n^2)$. Steps (d) and (e) can be implemented in an analogous way as (b), thus their complexity is $O(n)$. Testing the condition in step (f) and assembling the free components into a single chain is linear as well. Finally, step (g) requires $O(n^2)$ time. Therefore, the total complexity of the algorithm is $O(n^2)$. Summarizing, here is the main result of this note:

**Theorem 1.** For a metric space $(X, d)$ on $n$ points, it is possible to decide in optimal $O(n^2)$ time if $(X, d)$ is isometrically embeddable into the $l_1$-plane and to find such an embedding if it exists.

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**References**