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# MINKOWSKI SUM OF SEMI-CONVEX DOMAINS IN $\mathbb{R}^2$

SUNG WOO CHOI

**ABSTRACT.** The Minkowski sum of two sets  $A, B$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is defined to be the set of all points of the form  $a + b$  for  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ . Due to its fundamental nature, the Minkowski sum is an important subject in many practical application areas such as image processing, geometric design, robotics, *etc.* However, compared to the simplicity of the definition, a Minkowski sum of plane domains can have quite complicated topological and geometric features in general. This is the case even when the summands are relatively simple. For example, even if the summands are homeomorphic to the unit disk, the Minkowski sum of them need not be.

We first introduce natural curve classes called *Minkowski classes*, and show that the set of all planar domains, called  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains, whose boundaries consist of finite number of curves in a Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ , is closed under the Minkowski sum. Then we introduce the notion of *semi-convexity* for plane domains, which extends the convexity, and show that the Minkowski sum of semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is homeomorphic to the unit disk for any Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ . We also show that, in some sense, the semi-convexity is the weakest condition, so that the Minkowski sum be homeomorphic to the unit disk. It is also shown that the set of all semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is closed under the Minkowski sum for any Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ . These results reveal a new topological behaviour of the Minkowski sum.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Their sum  $A + B$ , called the *Minkowski sum* of  $A$  and  $B$ , is defined by

$$A + B = \{a + b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}.$$

Being one of the most fundamental operations on the sets in the spaces with the addition operation, the Minkowski sum has been used, both implicitly and explicitly, in virtually all branches of mathematics. However, there have not been many mathematical analyses of the properties of the Minkowski sum itself. One notable exception is the pioneering works by H. Brunn, H. Minkowski, and others on the so-called Brunn-Minkowski theory, which compares the volumes of the Minkowski sum and its summands [1, 16, 19].

Meanwhile, mainly due to the convenience of describing various geometric relations, the Minkowski sum has been adopted and used extensively in engineering and computer science. A few examples are mechanical engineering (collision-free path planning [13]), image processing and mathematical morphology [6, 20], computer graphics (metamorphosis [5]), geometric modeling (offset and sweep curve/surface generation [15, 21], computation of CSG operations [18]), and computational geometry [7].

The common problem persistent in all such applications is the efficient computation of the Minkowski sum [8, 9, 11]. But, the need for dealing with complex geometric objects encountered in real-world applications, makes this goal seem far from satisfactory. Thus there naturally arises the need for fundamental geometric and topological analysis of the Minkowski sum, which should be more detailed than just comparing volumes.

In this paper, we will investigate some global topological properties of the Minkowski sum in relation with the geometric structures of its summands. Although the Minkowski sum has a simple definition, it may cause a lot of complicated phenomena. In general, the Minkowski sum operation does not preserve topological properties of the sets in the Euclidean space. To give an idea, we first show some examples: See Figures 1, 2 and 3. Note that all the summands in these figures are homeomorphic to the unit disk. But in Figure 1, the result of the Minkowski sum is not simply-connected. In Figure 2, the Minkowski sum is not simply-connected, and its boundary is not homeomorphic to the unit circle. Worse still, the Minkowski sum has infinitely many ‘holes’ in Figure 3.

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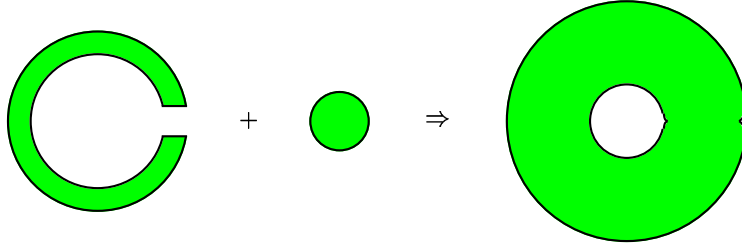


FIGURE 1. Multiply-connected Minkowski Sum

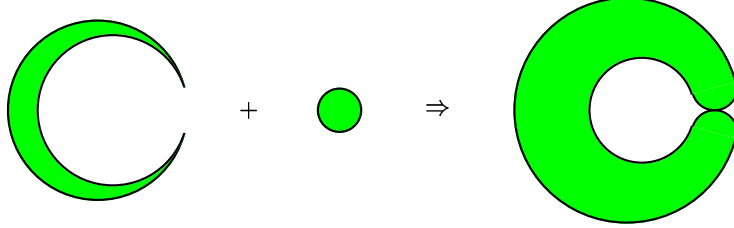
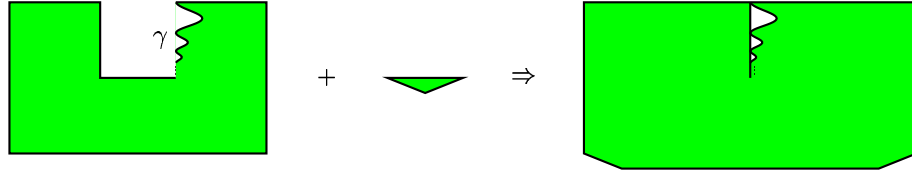


FIGURE 2. Minkowski Sum with Singular Boundary



$$\gamma(t) = \left( e^{-\frac{1}{t}} \left( 1 + \sin \frac{1}{t} \right), t \right), \quad t \in \left[ 0, \frac{2}{3\pi} \right]$$

FIGURE 3. Minkowski Sum with Infinitely Many Holes

These examples show that even when the summands are topologically simple, the Minkowski sum of them can become quite complex in the topological sense. Especially, the Minkowski sum does not preserve even the simplest topological property of the sets in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , that is, that of being homeomorphic to the unit disk.

Thus there arises the following natural problem:

**Problem 1 :** *Find a class of sets in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  which are homeomorphic to the unit disk, such that the Minkowski sums of sets in that class, are always homeomorphic to the unit disk.*

An immediate answer to this problem is the class of all convex sets which are homeomorphic to the unit disk, since it can be shown easily that the Minkowski sum of convex sets is also convex. But a serious drawback of the convexity is that it is too strong; There are too many useful sets which are not convex. So another important problem to be posed is:

**Problem 2 :** *Find a class of sets in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  which contains all convex sets homeomorphic to the unit disk, and is maximal among all the classes satisfying the condition in Problem 1.*

If we consider two bounded sets  $A$  and  $B$  in the plane as rigid, mutually impenetrable objects, then the complement of the Minkowski sum of  $A + B$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  represents the set of all possible relative positions of the translates of  $A$  and  $-B$ . One such configuration can be continuously moved into another by translation without mutual penetrating, if and only if the two configurations are in the same connected component of the complement of  $A + B$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . So, the Minkowski sum  $A + B$  is simply-connected, if and only if any two

relative positions of the translates of  $A$  and  $-B$  can be continuously moved into each other by translation without mutual penetrating, or, in other words, any relative positions can be continuously pulled over to separate  $A$  and  $-B$  indefinitely.

We will show that there exists an important class of planar domains that we call *semi-convex*, which satisfy the conditions both in Problems 1 and 2. Intuitively speaking, a planar domain is defined to be semi-convex, if the normal vector field along the boundary does not turn concavely by more than the angle  $\pi$ . We mention that our definition of semi-convexity differs from that introduced in [14]. It is also significantly more general than the usual notion of star-shapedness, and, as far as the author's knowledge, it is the first among the many variations of the convexity, which has an optimal property with respect to the Minkowski sum.

In general, the boundary curves of a Minkowski sum are given by the results of the operation called *convolution* on the boundary curves of the summands. The convolution can be considered as a basic building block in analyzing the Minkowski sum of the shapes represented by boundary curves. But there has been few precise mathematical treatises on the convolution of curves in the literature. Also, we will observe in Section 2 that the convolution can behave wildly unless we restrict the class of the curves to be convolved, which is a fact not often noted in both theory and practice. So in Section 2, we carefully analyze the mathematical properties of the convolution of curves, and classify the curve classes according to their differential regularity with particular adaption to the convolution.

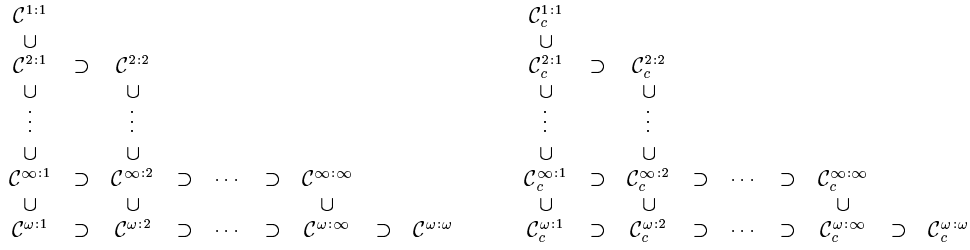
Often in practice, the curve pieces used to describe shape boundaries come from specific fixed classes such as the class of the rational curves or the various classes of splines (*e.g.*, the NURBS curves). However, most of these important curve classes are not closed under convolution, which makes it impossible to represent the Minkowski sum boundary in a uniform manner (*i.e.*, with the curve pieces in the same curve class used to represent the summands), and thus causes serious problems in practice. Meanwhile, it also turns out that the curve classes  $\mathcal{C}^{k,l}$ 's and  $\mathcal{C}_c^{k,l}$ 's introduced in Section 2, are not closed under convolution. Now these imply that the usual conditions on the boundary curves such as the rationality or the differentiability are not preserved under the Minkowski sum. In particular, it is not clear whether the notion of semi-convexity is closed under the Minkowski sum, unless we restrict the boundary curves to be inside special curve classes. Thus it is a necessary and important problem to find a condition on the classes of curves, which guarantees that the curve classes with that condition, be closed under convolution.

In Section 2, we introduce special curve classes, called *Minkowski classes*, which are closed under convolution. An important example of a Minkowski class, denoted by  $\mathcal{W}$ , is given in Section 3, for which we use Łojasiewicz's structure theorem for real analytic varieties [12]. It is shown that  $\mathcal{W}$  contains practically all the curves used in engineering applications. This especially means that it is not so restrictive to consider the Minkowski sum only in the category of  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains for a Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ . Here, an  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain means a subset in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  whose boundary consists of finitely many curves in  $\mathcal{M}$ .

Note that we consider a fairly general class of domains, especially with corners on their boundaries. In fact, this is also necessary, since these domains can arise naturally as a result of the Minkowski sum operation on quite nice domains. To handle them, we introduce two concepts: *sector* in Section 4, and *virtual boundary* in Section 5. A sector is a local germ of a domain near a boundary point whether cornered or not. So, by examining the effect of the Minkowski sum on sectors, we can understand the essential and local behavior of the Minkowski sum. By integrating these results, we obtain the global result in Section 6 that the set of all  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is closed under the Minkowski sum for any Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ , which is a basis for the further closedness result for the semi-convexity.

The notion of virtual boundary is a generalization of that of the usual boundary in a way that incorporates corners in a uniform manner. It is defined to be in one-to-one correspondence in a continuous manner with the outer normal vectors on the boundary including those at the corners. Together with the analysis of sectors, the notion of virtual boundary enables a uniform and easy treatment of cornered domains, thus reducing the globally complex problem of the Minkowski sum into the analysis of a few local genotypes of the sectors.

The notion of *semi-convexity*, which generalizes that of convexity, will formally be introduced in Section 7. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class. It is proved that the Minkowski sum of any two semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains, is homeomorphic to the unit disk, which answers Problem 1 above within the category of  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains. In Section 8, we prove that for any  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain which is homeomorphic to the unit disk but is not semi-convex, there exists a semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain such that their Minkowski sum is not homeomorphic to the unit disk. This answers Problem 2 above within the category of the  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains. In fact, it is shown that the set of all semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is uniquely maximal among all the classes of  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains, which satisfy the condition in Problem 1 and contain all the  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains called *flag domains*. Finally, we prove in Section 9

FIGURE 4. Inclusion Relations for  $\mathcal{C}^{k:l}$  and  $\mathcal{C}_c^{k:l}$ 

that the set of all semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is closed under the Minkowski sum. In proving these results, we will use the Gauss-Bonnet Theorem, translated into the language of virtual boundary, as one of the main tools. In Section 10, we summarize the results in this paper, and discuss some further research directions.

Since the semi-convexity is geometric in nature, the properties of semi-convex domains proved in this paper reveal a new relationship between the geometric and the topological properties of the Minkowski sum. Also, since semi-convexity can be checked easily algorithmically, it is expected to be utilized for various application areas using the Minkowski sum.

## 2. CURVES

The boundaries of reasonable domains consist of curves. So, for an analysis of domains, we first do an analysis of curves. In this section, we define various special curve classes according to their regularities, and study their properties with respect to the operation of *convolution*. In particular, the *Minkowski classes* are introduced, which are defined essentially to be closed under convolution. We also set up some conventions and notations which will be used throughout this paper.

Let  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$ ,  $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2)$  be in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . We denote  $\mathbf{v} \parallel \mathbf{w}$ , if at least one of  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  is  $0 = (0, 0)$ , or  $\mathbf{v} = k\mathbf{w}$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $p \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $r > 0$ . By  $B_r(p)$ , we always mean the *closed* ball in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , centered at  $p$  and with radius  $r$ . The open ball will be denoted by  $B_r^o(p)$ . The unit circle in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  will be denoted by  $S^1$ . Thus,  $S^1 = \{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid |\mathbf{v}| = 1\} = \partial B_1(0)$ .

### 2.1. Convolution.

#### Definition 2.1. ( $C^{k:l}$ Curve)

Let  $k, l = 1, 2, \dots, \infty, \omega$  ( $\omega$  for real-analytic), and  $k \geq l$ . Let  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . A curve  $\gamma : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is called a  $C^k$  curve, if there exists a reparametrization  $\tilde{\gamma} : (\tilde{a}, \tilde{b}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  of  $\gamma$  such that  $\tilde{\gamma}' \neq 0$  on  $(\tilde{a}, \tilde{b})$ , and  $\tilde{\gamma}$  is  $C^k$ . A curve  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is called a  $C^{k:l}$  curve, if the restriction of  $\gamma$  to  $(a, b)$  is a  $C^k$  curve, and there exists an extension  $\tilde{\gamma} : (a - \epsilon, b + \epsilon) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  of  $\gamma$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ , such that  $\tilde{\gamma}$  is a  $C^l$  curve.

Here, it is important to note that  $\tilde{\gamma}' \neq 0$ . Without this condition, a curve  $\gamma$  may not be a  $C^k$  curve, even if it is  $k$ -times differentiable.

#### Definition 2.2. (The Class $\mathcal{C}^{k:l}$ )

Let  $k, l = 1, 2, \dots, \infty, \omega$  ( $\omega$  for real-analytic), and  $k \geq l$ . Then we denote by  $\mathcal{C}^{k:l}$  the class of all  $C^{k:l}$  curves in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  defined on closed intervals, which have *no self-intersections*. An element in  $\mathcal{C}^{k:l}$  will be called a  $\mathcal{C}^{k:l}$ -curve.

Note that closed loops are excluded in this definition. The inclusion relations in Figure 4 are immediate from the definition.

*Remark 2.1.* Given a  $\mathcal{C}^{k:l}$ -curve  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ , we usually assume that it is defined on some slightly larger open interval  $(a - \epsilon, b + \epsilon)$ , and  $\gamma$  is  $k$ -times differentiable on  $(a, b)$ ,  $l$ -times differentiable on  $(a - \epsilon, b + \epsilon)$ , and  $\gamma' \neq 0$  on  $(a - \epsilon, b + \epsilon)$ .

Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be a  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -curve, and let  $\tilde{\gamma} : (a - \epsilon, b + \epsilon) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be a  $C^1$  extension of  $\gamma$ . It is easy to see that the limit

$$\mathbf{v}[\gamma](t) = \lim_{\tau \rightarrow t} \frac{\tilde{\gamma}(\tau) - \tilde{\gamma}(t)}{|\tilde{\gamma}(\tau) - \tilde{\gamma}(t)|}$$

exists in  $S^1$  for every  $t \in [a, b]$ , and  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] : [a, b] \rightarrow S^1$  is continuous. We will denote  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma](a)$  also by  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma]$ . Note that these are independent of the choice of  $\tilde{\gamma}$ . Let  $\mu : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$  be the covering map defined by  $\mu(t) = (\cos t, \sin t)$  for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Now there exists a continuous function  $\theta : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma](t) = \mu(\theta(t))$

for every  $t \in [a, b]$ . We call  $\theta$  an *angle function* of  $\gamma$ . Note that, if  $\tilde{\theta}$  is another angle function of  $\gamma$ , then, for some integer  $n$ , we have  $\tilde{\theta}(t) = \theta(t) + 2n\pi$  for every  $t \in [a, b]$ . So the following is well-defined:

**Definition 2.3. (Convex Curve)**

Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be a  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -curve, and let  $\theta : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be an angle function of  $\gamma$ . Then  $\gamma$  is called *convex*, if  $\theta$  is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing, unless it is constant. The *signature* of  $\gamma$ ,  $\sigma(\gamma)$  is defined to be  $+$  (*resp.*,  $-$ ) if  $\theta$  is strictly increasing (*resp.*, strictly decreasing), and 0 if  $\theta$  is constant.

For  $k, l = 1, 2, \dots, \infty, \omega$  ( $\omega$  for real-analytic) with  $k \geq l$ , we denote by  $\mathcal{C}_c^{k:l}$  the class of all the convex curves in  $\mathcal{C}^{k:l}$ . An element of  $\mathcal{C}_c^{k:l}$  will be called a  $\mathcal{C}_c^{k:l}$ -curve.

From the above definition, the inclusion relations between the classes  $\mathcal{C}_c^{k:l}$  in Figure 4 are obvious.

**Definition 2.4. (\*-Admissible Curves)**

Two  $\mathcal{C}_c^{1:1}$ -curves  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  are said to be *\*-admissible* to each other, if  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] \parallel \mathbf{v}[\gamma_2]$  and  $\sigma(\gamma_1) = \sigma(\gamma_2) \neq 0$ .

Note that the \*-admissibility is a transitive relation. Let  $\gamma_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  be  $\mathcal{C}_c^{1:1}$ -curves which are \*-admissible to each other. Let  $\tilde{\theta}_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be an angle function of  $\gamma_i$  for each  $i$ . For each  $i$ , define  $\theta_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $\theta_i(t) = \tilde{\theta}_i(t)$  if  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_i] = \mathbf{v}[\gamma_1]$ , and  $\theta_i(t) = \tilde{\theta}_i(t) + \pi$  if  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_i] = -\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1]$ . Then, with no loss of generality, we can assume  $\theta_i(a_i) = \theta_1(a_1)$  for each  $i$ . Define  $\alpha = \min \{\theta_1(b_1), \dots, \theta_n(b_n)\}$  if  $\sigma(\gamma_1) = +$ , and  $\alpha = \max \{\theta_1(b_1), \dots, \theta_n(b_n)\}$  if  $\sigma(\gamma_1) = -$ . Let  $h : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the linear function with  $h(0) = \theta_1(a_1)$  and  $h(1) = \alpha$ . Now we define  $\gamma = \gamma_1 * \dots * \gamma_n : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ , the *convolution* of  $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n$ , by

$$\gamma(t) = \gamma_1(\theta_1^{-1}(h(t))) + \dots + \gamma_n(\theta_n^{-1}(h(t))),$$

for  $t \in [0, 1]$ . Note that  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1](\theta_1^{-1}(h(t))) \parallel \dots \parallel \mathbf{v}[\gamma_n](\theta_n^{-1}(h(t)))$  for every  $t$ .

From the definition, it is clear that the result of convolution does not depend on the order of the operands. It is also easy to see that convolutions are continuous curves. But in general, a convolution of  $\mathcal{C}_c^{1:1}$ -curves can exhibit quite anomalous behaviors, and it cannot be expected to be even a  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -curve. This can happen even when the operands belong to  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\infty}$ , as can be seen from the following example:

**Example 2.1.** For some small  $\delta > 0$ , let  $\gamma_+, \gamma_- : [0, \delta] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be given by  $\gamma_{\pm}(t) = (t, f_{\pm}(t))$  for  $t \in [0, \delta]$ , where  $f_{\pm} : [0, \delta] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are defined by

$$f_{\pm}(t) = \int_0^t \frac{1}{\xi^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{\xi}\right) \left[4 \pm \left\{1 + \sqrt{2} \sin\left(\frac{1}{\xi} - \frac{\pi}{4}\right)\right\}\right] d\xi,$$

for  $t \in [0, \delta]$ . Note that

$$0 < \frac{1}{\xi^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{\xi}\right) \left[4 \pm \left\{1 + \sqrt{2} \sin\left(\frac{1}{\xi} - \frac{\pi}{4}\right)\right\}\right] \leq (5 + \sqrt{2}) \frac{1}{\xi^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{\xi}\right),$$

for every  $\xi > 0$ . So we have

$$0 < f_{\pm}(t) \leq (5 + \sqrt{2}) \int_0^t \frac{1}{\xi^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{\xi}\right) d\xi = (5 + \sqrt{2}) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{t}\right),$$

for every  $t \in (0, \delta]$ . This shows that  $f_+$  and  $f_-$  are well-defined. It is easy to see that  $f_{\pm}$  are real-analytic on  $(0, \delta]$ , and  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0+} f_{\pm}^{(k)} = 0$  for every  $k < \infty$ . From this, we can see that  $\gamma_{\pm} \in \mathcal{C}^{\omega:\infty}$ . Note that

$$f_{\pm}''(t) = \frac{1}{t^4} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{t}\right) \left[(1 - 2t) \left[4 \pm \left\{1 + \sqrt{2} \sin\left(\frac{1}{t} - \frac{\pi}{4}\right)\right\}\right] \mp \sqrt{2} \cos\left(\frac{1}{t} - \frac{\pi}{4}\right)\right],$$

for  $t > 0$ . So it follows that  $f_{\pm}''(t) > 0$  for  $t \in (0, \delta]$ , if we choose sufficiently small  $\delta > 0$ . This shows that  $\gamma_+, \gamma_- \in \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\infty}$ , and  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] = \mathbf{v}[\gamma_2] = (1, 0)$ ,  $\sigma(\gamma_1) = \sigma(\gamma_2) = +$ . Let  $f = f_+ - f_-$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(t) &= 2 \int_0^t \frac{1}{\xi^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{\xi}\right) \left\{1 + \sqrt{2} \sin\left(\frac{1}{\xi} - \frac{\pi}{4}\right)\right\} d\xi \\ &= 2 \exp\left(-\frac{1}{t}\right) \left(1 + \sin\frac{1}{t}\right), \end{aligned}$$

for  $t \in (0, \delta]$ . Let  $t_n = (\frac{3}{2}\pi + 2\pi N + 2n\pi)^{-1}$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , where  $(\frac{3}{2}\pi + 2\pi N + 2\pi)^{-1} \leq \delta < (\frac{3}{2}\pi + 2\pi N)^{-1}$ . Let  $S = \{(s, t) \in [0, \delta] \times [0, \delta] \mid \gamma_+(s) = \gamma_-(t)\}$ . It is easy to see that  $S = \{(t_n, t_n) \mid n = 1, 2, \dots\} \cup \{(0, 0)\}$ . Note also that  $f'(t_n) = f_+'(t_n) - f_-'(t_n) = 0$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Now  $\gamma_+$  and  $-\gamma_-$  are in  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\infty}$ , and \*-admissible to each other. Let  $\gamma = \gamma_1 * (-\gamma_2) : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then, from the above argument, it is easy to see that there exist sequences  $a_n, b_n \searrow 0$  with  $a_{n+1} < b_n < a_n$ , such that  $\gamma(a_n) = 0$  and  $\gamma(b_n) \neq 0$  for every  $n$ . Clearly, this cannot happen for a  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -curve. Thus we conclude that  $\gamma \notin \mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ .

The following lemma shows that the convolution behaves as expected, if we know beforehand that it has only a mild regularity, i.e.,  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ .

**Lemma 2.1.** *Let  $\gamma_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  be two  $\mathcal{C}_c^{1:1}$ -curves which are  $*$ -admissible to each other. Let  $\gamma = \gamma_1 * \gamma_2$ . Suppose  $\gamma \in \mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ . Then, for every  $t, t_1, t_2$  such that  $\gamma_1(t_1), \gamma_2(t_2)$  are summed in the convolution  $\gamma_1 * \gamma_2$ , we have  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma](t) \parallel \mathbf{v}[\gamma_1](t_1) \parallel \mathbf{v}[\gamma_2](t_2)$ . In consequence,  $\gamma$  is in  $\mathcal{C}_c^{1:1}$  and is  $*$ -admissible to  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}[\gamma_1](t_1) = \pm \mathbf{v}[\gamma_2](t_2)$ . First, note that

$$\frac{\gamma(\tau) - \gamma(t)}{|\gamma(\tau) - \gamma(t)|} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}_1 + k\mathbf{v}_2|} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 + \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}_2 + \frac{1}{k}\mathbf{v}_1|} \cdot \mathbf{v}_2,$$

where

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \frac{\gamma_1(\tau_1) - \gamma_1(t_1)}{|\gamma_1(\tau_1) - \gamma_1(t_1)|}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \frac{\gamma_2(\tau_2) - \gamma_2(t_2)}{|\gamma_2(\tau_2) - \gamma_2(t_2)|}, \quad k = \frac{|\gamma_2(\tau_2) - \gamma_2(t_2)|}{|\gamma_1(\tau_1) - \gamma_1(t_1)|},$$

and  $\gamma(\tau) = \gamma_1(\tau_1) + \gamma_2(\tau_2)$ . Let  $\mathbf{v} = \lim_{\tau \rightarrow t} \mathbf{v}_1 = \pm \lim_{\tau \rightarrow t} \mathbf{v}_2$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}[\gamma](t) &= \lim_{\tau \rightarrow t} \left( \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}_1 + k\mathbf{v}_2|} \pm \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}_2 + \frac{1}{k}\mathbf{v}_1|} \right) \cdot \mathbf{v} \\ &= \lim_{\tau \rightarrow t} \frac{1 \pm k}{|\mathbf{v}_1 + k\mathbf{v}_2|} \cdot \mathbf{v} \\ &= \lim_{\tau \rightarrow t} \frac{1}{|\frac{1}{1 \pm k} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 + \frac{k}{1 \pm k} \cdot \mathbf{v}_2|} \cdot \mathbf{v} \\ &= \lim_{\tau \rightarrow t} \frac{1}{\frac{1}{1 \pm k} \pm \frac{k}{1 \pm k}} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}. \end{aligned}$$

Since we know that  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma](t) \in S^1$ , it follows that  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma](t) = \mathbf{v}$  or  $-\mathbf{v}$ . Now the rest of the proof follows easily.  $\square$

## 2.2. Minkowski Class.

### Definition 2.5. (Minkowski Class)

A subclass  $\mathcal{M}$  of  $\mathcal{C}_c^{1:1}$  is called a *Minkowski class*, if the following two conditions are satisfied:

- (1)  $\mathcal{M}$  is closed under *restriction*, i.e., if  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is in  $\mathcal{M}$ , then  $\gamma|_{[c, d]}$  is also in  $\mathcal{M}$  for any  $[c, d] \subset [a, b]$ .
- (2)  $\mathcal{M}$  is closed under *initial convolution*, i.e., for any two  $*$ -admissible  $\mathcal{M}$ -curves  $\gamma_1 : [a_1, b_1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\gamma_2 : [a_2, b_2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ , the convolution  $\gamma_1|_{[a_1, a_1 + \epsilon]} * \gamma_2|_{[a_2, a_2 + \epsilon]}$  is either an  $\mathcal{M}$ -curve or constant for some  $\epsilon > 0$ .

As an example, let  $\mathcal{LA}$  be the set of all the line segments and the circular arcs in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . It can be easily checked that  $\mathcal{LA}$  is a Minkowski class. In Section 3, we will present a nontrivial Minkowski class called  $\mathcal{W}$ , which is significantly larger than  $\mathcal{LA}$ .

Let  $\gamma_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  be two continuous curves. We say that  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  have an *intersection* at  $(s, t)$ , if  $\gamma_1(s) = \gamma_2(t)$ . We say that  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  have an *isolated intersection* at  $(s, t)$ , if  $\gamma_1(s) = \gamma_2(t)$  and  $\gamma_1(s') \neq \gamma_2(t')$  for every  $(s', t') \in (s - \epsilon, s + \epsilon) \times (t - \epsilon, t + \epsilon) \setminus \{(s, t)\}$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ .

The next lemma shows an important property of Minkowski classes:

**Lemma 2.2.** *Any two  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  in a Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$  cannot have infinitely many isolated intersections.*

*Proof.* With no loss of generality, assume  $a_1 = a_2 = 0$ , where  $\gamma_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Suppose  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  have infinitely many isolated intersections. Since  $[a_1, b_1] \times [a_2, b_2]$  is compact, there exists an accumulation point of the isolated intersections, which we can assume to be  $\gamma_1(0) = \gamma_2(0)$ . With no loss of generality, we can assume  $\gamma_1(0) = \gamma_2(0) = 0$  and  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] = (1, 0)$ . Since  $\gamma_1(0) = \gamma_2(0)$  is an accumulation point of the isolated intersections, we can also assume that  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_2] = \mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] = (1, 0)$  and  $\sigma(\gamma_1) = \sigma(\gamma_2) = +$ . Thus, for  $i = 1, 2$ , we can write  $\gamma_i(t) = (t, f_i(t))$  for small  $t \geq 0$ , where  $f_i$  is a  $C^1$  function such that  $f_i(0) = f'_i(0) = 0$ , and  $f'_i$  is strictly increasing. Now there should exist a sequence  $t_n \searrow 0$  such that  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  have an isolated intersection at  $(t_n, t_n)$  for every  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . If  $f'_1(t_n) = f'_2(t_n)$  except at most finitely many  $n$ 's, then the convolution  $\gamma = \gamma_1 * (-\gamma_2)$  would not be in  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ , which can be seen from the argument in Example 2.1. So we can assume  $f'_1(t_n) \neq f'_2(t_n)$  for every  $n$ . We also assume with no loss of generality that  $f_1(t) \neq f_2(t)$  if  $t \neq t_n$  for any  $n$ . In this case, it is easy to see that  $\gamma(t_n)$ 's are in the regions  $D_1$  and  $D_3$  alternating with  $n$ , where  $D_1 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x > 0, y > 0\}$  and  $D_3 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x < 0, y < 0\}$ . But this is impossible, since  $\gamma$  should be in  $\mathcal{M}$ , and thus in  $\mathcal{C}_c^{1:1}$ . Thus we conclude that  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  cannot have infinitely many isolated intersections.  $\square$

**Remark 2.2.** Example 2.1 shows that two  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega;\infty}$ -curves can have infinitely many isolated intersections, which implies that  $\mathcal{C}_c^{k;l}$  is not a Minkowski class for  $k, l = 1, 2, \dots, \infty, \omega, k \geq l$ , except for  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega;\omega}$ . Later, we will also see that  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega;\omega}$  is not a Minkowski class.

Let  $\gamma_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  be two one-to-one continuous curves. We denote  $\gamma_1 \approx \gamma_2$ , if there exist  $a_i < c_i \leq b_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$  and a homeomorphism  $h : [a_1, c_1] \rightarrow [a_2, c_2]$ , such that  $h(a_1) = a_2$  and  $\gamma_1(t) = \gamma_2(h(t))$  for every  $t \in [a_1, c_1]$ . We denote  $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2$ , if  $\gamma_1$  can be moved to a curve  $\tilde{\gamma}_1$  by a rigid motion in the plane so that  $\tilde{\gamma}_1 \approx \gamma_2$ . Note that both of the relations  $\approx$  and  $\sim$  are symmetric and transitive.

Let  $\gamma_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  be two  $\mathcal{C}_c^{1;1}$ -curves. Note that, with appropriate rigid motions in the plane, we can always move  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  to the curves  $\tilde{\gamma}_1, \tilde{\gamma}_2$  respectively, so that  $\tilde{\gamma}_1(a_1) = \tilde{\gamma}_2(a_2) = 0$ ,  $\mathbf{v}[\tilde{\gamma}_1] = \mathbf{v}[\tilde{\gamma}_2] = (1, 0)$  and  $\sigma(\tilde{\gamma}_1), \sigma(\tilde{\gamma}_2) \geq 0$ . We denote  $\gamma_1 \triangleright \gamma_2$  (resp.,  $\gamma_1 \triangleleft \gamma_2$ ), if there exist continuous functions  $f_1, f_2 : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ , such that the graph of  $f_i$  is contained in the image of  $\tilde{\gamma}_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , and  $f_1(x) > f_2(x)$  (resp.,  $f_1(x) < f_2(x)$ ) for every  $x \in (0, \epsilon]$ .

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class. As an important consequence of Definition 2.5 and Lemma 2.2, note that, given any two curves  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  in  $\mathcal{M}$ , there are only three possibilities, i.e., either  $\gamma_1 \triangleright \gamma_2$ , or  $\gamma_1 \triangleleft \gamma_2$ , or  $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2$ . Suppose  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  are  $*$ -admissible to each other. Then the convolution  $\gamma = \gamma_1 * \gamma_2$  is *initially* constant (that is, constant for some interval from the start), if and only if  $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2$  and  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] = -\mathbf{v}[\gamma_2]$ . For the rest of the cases,  $\gamma$  is initially in  $\mathcal{M}$ , and the next lemma shows the relation between  $\gamma$  and  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  with respect to the above relations  $\triangleright, \triangleleft$  and  $\sim$ . See Figure 5 for the illustration of these results.

**Lemma 2.3. (Convolution in Minkowski Class)**

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $\gamma_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  be two  $\mathcal{M}$ -curves which are  $*$ -admissible to each other. Let  $\gamma$  be an initial piece of the convolution  $\gamma_1 * \gamma_2$ , which is either in  $\mathcal{M}$ , or is a constant. Then:

(1) Suppose  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] = \mathbf{v}[\gamma_2]$ . Then  $\gamma$  is always in  $\mathcal{M}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] = \mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] = \mathbf{v}[\gamma_2]$ ,  $\sigma(\gamma) = \sigma(\gamma_1) = \sigma(\gamma_2)$ , and  $\gamma \triangleleft \gamma_1, \gamma \triangleleft \gamma_2$ .

(2) Suppose  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] = -\mathbf{v}[\gamma_2]$ .  $\gamma$  is constant, if and only if  $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2$ . If  $\gamma_1 \triangleright \gamma_2$  (resp.,  $\gamma_1 \triangleleft \gamma_2$ ), then  $\gamma \in \mathcal{M}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] = \mathbf{v}[\gamma_2]$  (resp.,  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] = \mathbf{v}[\gamma_1]$ ),  $\sigma(\gamma) = \sigma(\gamma_1) = \sigma(\gamma_2)$ , and  $\gamma \triangleright \gamma_2$  (resp.,  $\gamma \triangleright \gamma_1$ ).

*Proof.* With no loss of generality, assume that  $a_1 = a_2 = 0$ ,  $\gamma_1(0) = \gamma_2(0) = 0$ ,  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] = (1, 0)$ , and  $\sigma(\gamma_1) = \sigma(\gamma_2) = +$ . There are two possibilities for  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_2]$ , i.e.,  $(1, 0)$  and  $(-1, 0)$ . We can assume  $\gamma_1(t) = (t, f_1(t))$ ,  $\gamma_2(t) = (\pm t, \pm f_2(t))$  ( $\pm$  depending on the direction of  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_2]$ ) for small  $t \geq 0$ , where  $f_i$  is a  $C^1$  function such that  $f_i(0) = f'_i(0) = 0$  and  $f'_i$  is strictly increasing for  $i = 1, 2$ . Since we have either  $\gamma_1 \triangleright \gamma_2$ , or  $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2$ , or  $\gamma_1 \triangleleft \gamma_2$ , we can assume that either  $f_1(t) > f_2(t)$ , or  $f_1(t) = f_2(t)$ , or  $f_1(t) < f_2(t)$  for every small  $t > 0$ .

Consider first the case when  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_2] = (1, 0)$ . By Lemma 2.1, it is clear that,  $\gamma \in \mathcal{M}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] = (1, 0)$  and  $\sigma(\gamma) = +$ . So we can write  $\gamma(t) = (t, f(t))$  for small  $t \geq 0$ , where  $f$  is a  $C^1$  function such that  $f(0) = f'(0) = 0$ ,  $f'$  is strictly increasing for small  $t$ . Since  $\gamma$  is in  $\mathcal{M}$ , we can see that, for  $i = 1, 2$ ,  $f(t)$  is either greater than, or equal to, or less than  $f_i(t)$  for every small  $t > 0$ .

Now, for any small  $t > 0$ , we can take small  $t_1, t_2 > 0$  such that  $t = t_1 + t_2$ ,  $f'_1(t_1) = f'_2(t_2)$ , and  $f(t) = f_1(t_1) + f_2(t_2)$ . By Lemma 2.1, it follows that  $f'(t) = f'_1(t_1) = f'_2(t_2)$ . Since  $t > t_1, t_2$  and  $f'_1, f'_2$  are strictly increasing, we have  $f'_1(t), f'_2(t) > f'(t)$ . Thus we have  $f_i(t) > f(t)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , for every small  $t > 0$ , which implies that  $\gamma \triangleleft \gamma_1$  and  $\gamma \triangleleft \gamma_2$ . This shows (1).

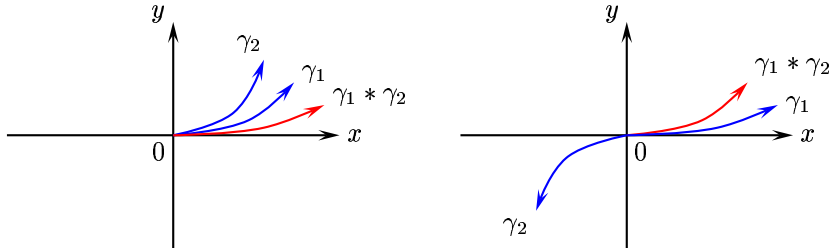


FIGURE 5. Convolutions of  $\mathcal{M}$ -curves

Now consider the case when  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_2] = (-1, 0)$ . Obviously,  $\gamma$  is constant, if and only if  $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2$ . So assume  $\gamma_1 \not\sim \gamma_2$ . Then, either  $\gamma_1 \triangleright \gamma_2$  or  $\gamma_1 \triangleleft \gamma_2$ . Suppose  $\gamma_1 \triangleleft \gamma_2$ . By Lemma 2.1, we have either  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] = (1, 0)$  or  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] = (-1, 0)$ . If  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] = (-1, 0)$ , then we must have  $f'_1(t) > f'_2(t)$  for every small  $t > 0$ , since  $f'_1, f'_2$

are strictly increasing. It follows that  $f_1(t) > f_2(t)$  for every sufficiently small  $t > 0$ , which contradicts the assumption that  $\gamma_1 \triangleleft \gamma_2$ . So we should have  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] = (1, 0)$ . Since  $\gamma \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $\sigma(\gamma) = +$ , we can assume  $\gamma(t) = (t, f(t))$  for small  $t \geq 0$ , where  $f$  is a  $C^1$  function such that  $f(0) = f'(0) = 0$ , and  $f'$  is strictly increasing for every small  $t > 0$ . Now for any small  $t > 0$ , we can take small  $t_1, t_2 > 0$  such that  $t = t_1 - t_2$ ,  $f'_1(t_1) = f'(t_2)$ , and  $f(t) = f_1(t_1) - f_2(t_2)$ . By Lemma 2.1, we have  $f'(t) = f'_1(t_1) = f'(t_2)$ . Since  $t < t_1$  and  $f'_1$  strictly increasing, we have  $f'_1(t) < f'(t)$ , and thus  $f_1(t) < f(t)$  for every small  $t > 0$ . This implies that  $\gamma \triangleright \gamma_1$ . By a symmetric argument, we can also show that  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] = \mathbf{v}[\gamma_2]$  and  $\gamma \triangleright \gamma_2$ , when  $\gamma_1 \triangleright \gamma_2$ . Thus we showed (2).  $\square$

### 3. THE CLASS $\mathcal{W}$

In this section, we present an important example of Minkowski class called  $\mathcal{W}$ , which is large enough to contain practically all the important curves such as the NURBS curves. We will need the following proposition which is part of Lojasiewicz's Structure Theorem for real analytic varieties ([10], [12]).

**Proposition 1. (S. Lojasiewicz)**

Let  $\Phi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a real-analytic function on an open set  $U \ni 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , and let  $Z = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in U \mid \Phi(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0\}$ . Then there exist  $T \in SO(n, \mathbb{R})$  and an open set  $N \ni 0$  such that the set  $Z \cap N$  can be decomposed as

$$Z \cap N = V^0 \cup \dots \cup V^{n-1},$$

where, for each  $k = 0, \dots, n-1$ ,  $V^k$  can be decomposed again as

$$V^k = \bigcup_{i=1}^{p_k} \Gamma_i^k,$$

for some  $0 \leq p_k < \infty$ . Here, each  $\Gamma_i^0$  is a point, and for each  $\Gamma_i^k$  with  $k \geq 1$ , there exist a connected open set  $U_i^k \in \mathbb{R}^k$  and real-analytic functions  $\xi_{i,k+1}^k, \dots, \xi_{i,n}^k$  on  $U_i^k$ , such that

$$\Gamma_i^k = T \cdot \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid (x_1, \dots, x_k) \in U_i^k, x_j = \xi_{i,j}^k(x_1, \dots, x_k) \text{ for } j = k+1, \dots, n\}.$$

In fact, what we essentially need is the following consequence of the above proposition.

**Corollary 1.** Let  $\Phi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a real-analytic function on an open set  $U \ni 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , and let  $Z = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in U \mid \Phi(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0\}$ . Then there exists an open neighborhood  $N$  of 0 in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that the set  $Z \cap N$  has a finite number of connected components.

By using the above result, we first see how convolution behaves in the class  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega;\omega}$ . Here, we define  $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w} = v_1 w_2 - v_2 w_1$  for  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2), \mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Note that  $\mathbf{v} \parallel \mathbf{w}$  if and only if  $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w} = 0$ .

**Lemma 3.1.** Let  $\gamma_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  be  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega;\omega}$ -curves which are  $*$ -admissible to each other. Then, for some  $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n > 0$ ,  $\gamma = \gamma_1|_{[a_1, a_1 + \epsilon_1]} * \dots * \gamma_n|_{[a_n, a_n + \epsilon_n]}$  is either constant, or is a  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega;1}$ -curve which is  $*$ -admissible to each  $\gamma_i$ .

*Proof.* With no loss of generality, we assume  $a_1 = \dots = a_n = 0$ ,  $\gamma_1(0) = \dots = \gamma_n(0) = 0$ ,  $\sigma(\gamma_1) = \dots = \sigma(\gamma_n) = +$ , and  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] = (1, 0)$ . For each  $i$ , let  $\tilde{\theta}_i$  be the angle function of  $\gamma_i$  such that  $\tilde{\theta}_i(0) = 0$  or  $\pi$ , and define  $\theta_i : [0, b_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $\theta_i = \tilde{\theta}_i$  if  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_i] = (1, 0)$ , and  $\theta_i = \tilde{\theta}_i - \pi$  if  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_i] = (-1, 0)$ . Then  $\theta_i$  is strictly increasing and  $\theta_i(0) = 0$  for every  $i$ . Take small  $0 < \epsilon_i \leq b_i$  for each  $i$  such that  $\theta(\epsilon_1) = \dots = \theta_n(\epsilon_n)$ . Let  $\alpha = \theta(\epsilon_1)$ . Since  $\gamma_i$ 's are in  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega;\omega}$ , we view each  $\gamma_i$  is defined and real-analytic on  $(-\delta, \epsilon_i]$  for some  $\delta > 0$ . We can also assume that each  $\gamma_i$  is unit-speed.

Let  $U = (-\delta, \epsilon_1) \times \dots \times (-\delta, \epsilon_n) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then the function  $F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and the map  $G : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ , which are defined by

$$\begin{aligned} F(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \sum_{j \neq k}^n |\gamma_j'(x_j) \times \gamma_k'(x_k)|^2, \\ G(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \prod_{p \neq i}^n \kappa_p(x_p) \right) \gamma_i'(x_i), \end{aligned}$$

are real-analytic on  $U$ . Here, for each  $i$ ,  $\kappa_i : (-\delta, \epsilon_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is the curvature function of  $\gamma_i$ , i.e.,  $\kappa_i(x_i) = \gamma_i'(x_i) \times \gamma_i''(x_i)$ . Let  $Z_F$  be the zero set of  $F$  in  $U$ . Let  $Q = [0, \epsilon_1) \times \dots \times [0, \epsilon_n)$ . Then it is easy to see that  $Z_F \cap Q = \{\zeta(t) \mid t \in [0, \alpha)\}$ , where the one-to-one map  $\zeta : [0, \alpha] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined by  $\zeta(t) = (\theta_1^{-1}(t), \dots, \theta_n^{-1}(t))$ .



Note that  $\kappa_i(x_i) = \theta'_i(x_i)$  for  $x_i \in [0, \epsilon_i]$  for each  $i$ . So  $(\theta_i^{-1})'(t) = 1/\kappa_i(\theta_i^{-1}(t))$  for  $t \in [0, \alpha]$  for every  $i$ . Since  $\gamma_i$  is real analytic on  $(-\delta, \epsilon_i]$  for each  $i$ , we can take  $\epsilon_i$ 's small enough so that  $\kappa_i$  does not vanish on  $(0, \epsilon_i]$  for every  $i$ . So  $\theta_i^{-1}$  is real-analytic on  $(0, \alpha]$  for each  $i$ , and hence  $\zeta$  is real-analytic on  $(0, \alpha]$ . Note that  $\gamma(t) = \gamma_1(\theta_1^{-1}(t)) + \dots + \gamma_n(\theta_n^{-1}(t))$  for  $t \in [0, \alpha]$ . So  $\gamma$  is also real-analytic on  $(0, \alpha]$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma'(t) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma'_i(\theta_i^{-1}(t)) \frac{1}{\kappa_i(\theta_i^{-1}(t))} \\ &= \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^n \kappa_i(\theta_i^{-1}(t))} G(\zeta(t)).\end{aligned}$$

Note that  $|G \circ \zeta|^2$  is a real-analytic function on  $(0, \alpha]$ . If  $|G \circ \zeta|^2 \equiv 0$  on  $(0, \alpha]$ , then  $\gamma$  is constant. Suppose  $|G \circ \zeta|^2 \not\equiv 0$  on  $(0, \alpha]$ . Let  $S = \{t \in (0, \alpha] \mid |G \circ \zeta|^2(t) = 0\}$ . Suppose  $S$  has infinitely many elements. Then, since  $|G \circ \zeta|^2$  is real-analytic on  $(0, \alpha]$ , there exists a sequence  $t_k \searrow 0$  in  $(0, \alpha)$  such that  $S = \{t_k \mid k = 1, 2, \dots\}$ . Define the real analytic function  $\Phi$  by  $\Phi = F + |G|^2$  on  $U$ . Let  $Z_\Phi$  be the zero set of  $\Phi$  in  $U$ . By Corollary 1, there exists an open connected neighborhood  $N$  of 0 in  $U$  such that  $Z_\Phi \cap N$  has a finite number of connected components. Let  $\mathbf{x}_k = \zeta(t_k)$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ . Since  $t_k \searrow 0$  and  $\zeta(0) = 0$ , there exist infinitely many  $\mathbf{x}_k$ 's contained in  $N$ . Denote these points in  $N$  again by  $\mathbf{x}_k$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ . Then it is easy to see that  $Z_\Phi \cap N \cap Q = \{\mathbf{x}_k \mid k = 1, 2, \dots\} \cup \{0\}$ . This means that  $Z_\Phi \cap N$  has infinitely many isolated points, which is a contradiction to Corollary 1. Thus we conclude that  $S$  is finite. Now we can take  $\epsilon_i$ 's small enough again such that  $\gamma'(t)$  never vanishes on  $(0, \alpha]$ . So  $\gamma$  on  $(0, \alpha]$  is a  $C^\omega$  curve. Note that  $\gamma'(t) \not\parallel \gamma'_i(\theta_i^{-1}(t))$  for every  $t \in (0, \alpha]$  and  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . So  $\gamma$  is convex,  $C^1$  on  $[0, \alpha]$ ,  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] \parallel (1, 0)$ , and  $\sigma(\gamma) = +$ . We can take  $\epsilon_i$ 's smaller still so that  $\gamma$  is one-to-one. Thus we proved that  $\gamma$  is a  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:1}$ -curve  $*$ -admissible to each  $\gamma_i$ .  $\square$

We have seen that the convolutions of any  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$ -curves belong to  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:1}$ . In fact, this is the best we can tell. A convolution of  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$ -curves may not be even a  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:2}$ -curve in general, which can be seen from the following example:

**Example 3.1.** Let

$$\gamma_1(t) = \left(t, \frac{1}{2}t^2\right), \quad t \in [0, 1], \quad \gamma_2(\theta) = (-\sin \theta, \cos \theta), \quad \theta \in [0, \frac{\pi}{4}].$$

Then  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$ . It is easy to see that, with some reparametrization,

$$\gamma(\theta) = \left(\tan \theta - \sin \theta, \frac{1}{2} \tan^2 \theta + \cos \theta\right), \quad \theta \in [0, \frac{\pi}{4}],$$

where  $\gamma = \gamma_1 * \gamma_2$ . From this, we can show that

$$\lim_{\theta \searrow 0} \frac{|\gamma'(\theta) \times \gamma''(\theta)|}{|\gamma'(\theta)|^3} = \infty$$

So the curvature of  $\gamma$  blows up at  $\theta = 0$ , which is impossible for a  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:2}$ -curve. Thus  $\gamma \notin \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:2}$ .

Note that Example 3.1 shows that the class  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$  is not a Minkowski class.

Now we define the curve class  $\mathcal{W}$ , which is an example of a Minkowski class.

**Definition 3.1. (The Class  $\mathcal{W}$ )**

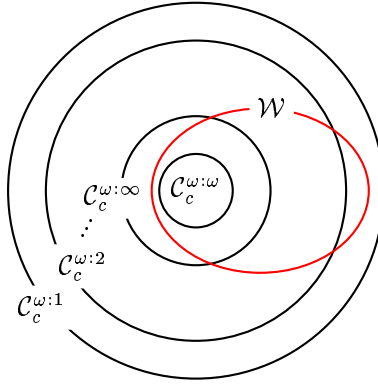
$\mathcal{W}$  is the union of the set of all the straight line segments and the set of all  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:1}$ -curves which are of the form  $\gamma_1 * \dots * \gamma_n$  for some  $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n$  in  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$ ,  $n \geq 1$ .

As an easy consequence of Lemma 3.1, we have the following fact:

**Theorem 3.1.**  $\mathcal{W}$  is a Minkowski class.

*Proof.* First, it is obvious that  $\mathcal{W}$  satisfies condition (1) in Definition 2.5. Let  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \mathcal{W}$  be  $*$ -admissible to each other. Then  $\gamma_1 = \alpha_1 * \dots * \alpha_m$  and  $\gamma_2 = \beta_1 * \dots * \beta_n$  for some  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_n \in \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$ . By the definition of convolution, it is easy to see that  $\gamma_1 * \gamma_2 = \alpha_1 * \dots * \alpha_m * \beta_1 * \dots * \beta_n$ . Now from Lemma 3.1, we can easily see that condition (2) in Definition 2.5 is satisfied.  $\square$

Note that  $\mathcal{W}$  is the smallest Minkowski class containing  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$ . Now we explore the relations of  $\mathcal{W}$  with respect to other curve classes. Note first that  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega} \subset \mathcal{W} \subset \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:1}$  by definition. Example 2.1 and Lemma 2.2 shows that  $\mathcal{W} \neq \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:1}$ . Example 3.1 shows  $\mathcal{W} \neq \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$ . So we have  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega} \subsetneq \mathcal{W} \subsetneq \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:1}$ . Examples 2.1 and 3.1 also show respectively that  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\infty} \not\subset \mathcal{W}$  and  $\mathcal{W} \not\subset \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:2}$ . Moreover, the following Example 3.2 shows that  $\mathcal{W} \cap (\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:n} \setminus \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:n+1}) \neq \emptyset$  for every  $1 \leq n < \infty$ . Combining all these, Figure 6 shows the inclusion relations of  $\mathcal{W}$  with respect to other curve classes.

FIGURE 6. Inclusion Relations for  $\mathcal{W}$ 

**Example 3.2.** Let  $n \geq 1$  be an integer. For some small  $0 < T < 1$ , let  $\gamma_1(t) = (t, f(x))$ ,  $\gamma_2(t) = (-t, -g(t))$ , for  $t \in [0, T]$ , where

$$f(t) = \int_0^t (\tau - \tau^2)^{2n} d\tau, \quad g(t) = \frac{1}{2n+1} t^{2n+1}.$$

Clearly,  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$ . Putting  $f'(t) = g'(s)$ , we have  $s = t - t^2$ . So, with reparametrization, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(t) &= \gamma_1(t) + \gamma_2(s) \\ &= \left( t^2, \int_0^t (\tau - \tau^2)^{2n} d\tau - \frac{1}{2n+1} (t - t^2)^{2n+1} \right), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\gamma = \gamma_1 * \gamma_2$ . Let

$$F = \int_0^t (\tau - \tau^2)^{2n} d\tau - \frac{1}{2n+1} (t - t^2)^{2n+1}.$$

By Lemma 3.1, we know that  $\gamma$  is in  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:1}$ . Note that, for  $1 \leq k < \infty$ ,  $\gamma$  is in  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:k}$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ , if and only if the limit  $\lim_{t \searrow 0} d^k F / du^k$  exists, where  $u = t^2$ . Now

$$F = \int_0^{\sqrt{u}} (\tau - \tau^2)^{2n} d\tau - \frac{1}{2n+1} (\sqrt{u} - u)^{2n+1}.$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dF}{du} &= (\sqrt{u} - u)^{2n} - (\sqrt{u} - u)^{2n} \left( \frac{1}{2\sqrt{u}} - 1 \right) \\ &= (t - t^2)^{2n} - (t - t^2)^{2n} \left( \frac{1}{2t} - 1 \right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} t^{2n-1} + \text{higher order terms in } t. \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $dt^m/du = \frac{1}{2} m t^{m-2}$  for every integer  $m$ . So, for each  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ , we have

$$\frac{d^k F}{du^k} = a_k t^{2n+1-2k} + \text{higher order terms in } t,$$

for some  $a_k \neq 0$ . It follows that  $\lim_{t \searrow 0} d^n F / du^n = 0$  and  $\lim_{t \searrow 0} d^{n+1} F / du^{n+1} = -\infty$ . This shows that  $\gamma \in \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:n} \setminus \mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:n+1}$ .

#### 4. SECTORS AND DOMAINS

We will now define the exact meaning of the word *domain* used in this paper. With our definition, the domains can be of fairly general shape. For example, ones consisting only of curve segments, which cannot be regarded as domains in the conventional sense, are also included. Our analysis of the domains and their Minkowski sum will be based on the global integration of various local results. The *sector* introduced below, is a basic local object we will use.

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a class of the curves in  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ . We say  $\mathcal{C}$  is *closed under restriction*, if, for every  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  in  $\mathcal{C}$ ,  $\gamma|_{[c, d]}$  is also in  $\mathcal{C}$  for every  $[c, d] \subset [a, b]$ . We will only consider the curve classes which are closed under restriction. Note that  $\mathcal{C}^{k:l}$ ,  $\mathcal{C}_c^{k:l}$  for  $k, l = 1, 2, \dots, \infty, \omega$ ,  $k \geq l$  and every Minkowski class satisfy this condition.

**Definition 4.1. (Sector)**

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a class of curves in  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$  which is closed under restriction. A closed set  $S$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is called a  $\mathcal{C}$ -*sector* with center  $p \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and radius  $r > 0$ , if  $S$  is bounded by three continuous curves  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$ , which satisfy the following conditions:

- (1)  $\alpha : [a_1, a_2] \rightarrow B_r(p)$  and  $\beta : [b_1, b_2] \rightarrow B_r(p)$  are  $\mathcal{C}$ -curves such that  $\alpha(a_1) = \beta(b_1) = p$ .
- (2) The functions  $\rho_\alpha : [a_1, a_2] \rightarrow [0, r]$  and  $\rho_\beta : [b_1, b_2] \rightarrow [0, r]$ , defined by  $\rho_\alpha(t) = |\alpha(t) - p|$  and  $\rho_\beta(t) = |\beta(t) - p|$ , are homeomorphisms.
- (3) Either  $\alpha([a_1, a_2]) = \beta([b_1, b_2])$ , or  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  have no intersections except at  $p$ .
- (4)  $\gamma$  traverses on  $\partial B_r(p)$  from  $\alpha(a_2)$  to  $\beta(b_2)$  in the counter-clockwise direction.

Here, if  $\alpha(a_2) = \beta(b_2)$  (or equivalently, if  $\alpha([a_1, a_2]) = \beta([b_1, b_2])$ ), then  $\gamma$  is constant just at the point  $\alpha(a_2) = \beta(b_2)$ , and  $S$  is just the set of all the points on the curve  $\alpha$  (or equivalently,  $\beta$ ). The two curves  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$  are called the *start curve* and the *end curve* of  $S$  respectively. The *cone*  $C(S)$  of  $S$  is defined as:

$$C(S) = \{\mathbf{v} \in S^1 \mid \exists \gamma \in \mathcal{C}^{1:1} : [0, 1] \rightarrow S \text{ such that } \gamma(0) = p, \gamma'(0) = \mathbf{v}\}.$$

$S$  is called *sharp* (*resp.*, *dull*, *flat*), if the center angle of  $C(S)$  is less than  $\pi$  (*resp.*, greater than  $\pi$ , equal to  $\pi$ ). If  $\alpha([a_1, a_2]) = \beta([b_1, b_2])$ , then we call  $S$  *degenerate*, and otherwise we call  $S$  *non-degenerate*.

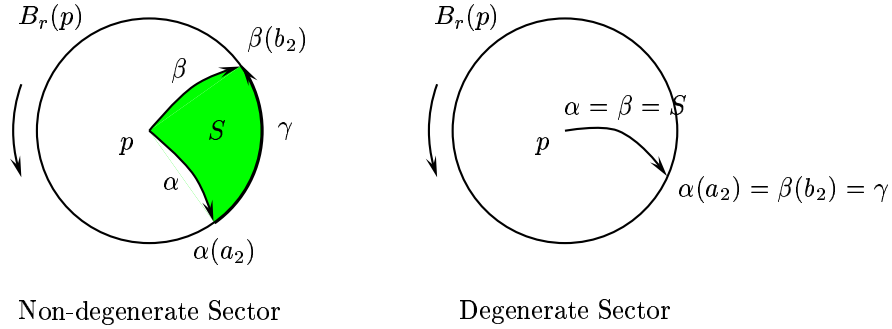


FIGURE 7. Sector

Let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be two  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ . Then  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are said to be *non-overlapping*, if  $S_1 \cap S_2 = \{p\}$ . We list some elementary properties of sectors, which follow immediately from Definition 4.1 and Lemma 2.2.

**Lemma 4.1.** (1) Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a class of curves in  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$  which is closed under restriction, and let  $S$  be a  $\mathcal{C}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ . Then  $B_{r'}(p) \cap S$  is a  $\mathcal{C}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $r'$  for every  $0 < r' \leq r$ .

(2) Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be two  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ . Then there exists  $0 < r' \leq r$  such that, for every  $0 < \rho \leq r'$ , the set  $B_\rho(p) \cap (S_1 \cup S_2)$  is either  $B_\rho(p)$ , or an  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$ , or a union of two non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$ .

*Proof.* (1) is obvious, and (2) is immediate from Lemma 2.2. □

Now we define the domains:

**Definition 4.2. (Domain)**

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a class of curves in  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ . A subset  $\Omega$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is called a  $\mathcal{C}$ -*domain*, if it satisfies the following conditions:

- (1)  $\Omega$  is connected and compact.
- (2)  $\partial\Omega$  is a union of a finite number of  $\mathcal{C}$ -curves, no two of which meet at infinitely many points.

**Remark 4.1.** If  $\mathcal{C}$  is  $\mathcal{C}^{\omega:\omega}$ ,  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$ , or a Minkowski class ( $\mathcal{W}$ , for example), then condition (2) in Definition 4.2 can be omitted.

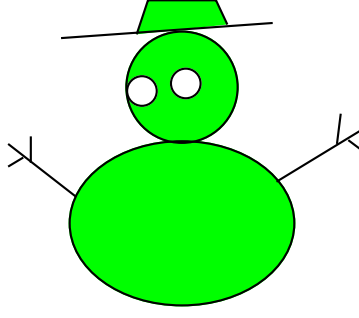


FIGURE 8. Example of a ‘Domain’ with General Shape

Note that, in view of this definition, the Minkowski sum in Figure 3 is not a  $\mathcal{C}^{\omega:\infty}$ -domain, though its boundary consists of finitely many  $\mathcal{C}^{\omega:\infty}$ -curves. In fact, it is not even a  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domain. But the domains in our definition can be of fairly general shape such as the one in Figure 8.

Now we start to use the local object sector to describe global properties.

**Lemma 4.2. (Local Condition for Domain)**

Let  $\Omega$  be a connected and compact set in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a class of curves in  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$  which is closed under restriction. Then the following two conditions are equivalent:

- (1)  $\Omega$  is a  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain.
- (2) For every point  $p$  in  $\partial\Omega$ , there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega$  is a union of a finite number of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{C}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $\Omega$  is a  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain. Let  $p \in \partial\Omega$ . Since  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ , it is easy to see from Definition 4.2 (2) that there exist  $r > 0$  and  $\mathcal{C}$ -curves  $\gamma_i : [0, a_i] \rightarrow B_r(p)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  for some  $1 \leq n < \infty$ , such that  $B_r(p) \cap \partial\Omega = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \gamma_i([0, a_i])$ , and the function  $\rho_i : [0, a_i] \rightarrow [0, r]$ , defined by  $\rho_i(t) = |\gamma_i(t) - p|$ , is a homeomorphism with  $\rho_i(0) = 0$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Again by Definition 4.2 (2), we can assume  $\gamma_i$  and  $\gamma_j$  do not meet except at  $p$  for every  $1 \leq i \neq j \leq n$ . Now it is clear that  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega$  is a union of a finite number of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{C}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ . Thus (1) implies (2).

Conversely, suppose (2). Then, for every  $p \in \partial\Omega$ , we can choose  $r(p) > 0$  such that  $B_{r(p)}(p) \cap \Omega$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{C}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ , and  $B_{r(p)}(p) \cap \partial\Omega$  is a union of a finite number of  $\mathcal{C}$ -curves, each pair of which have no intersections except at  $p$ . Note that  $\{B_{r(p)}^o(p) \cap \partial\Omega : p \in \partial\Omega\}$  is an open cover of the compact set  $\partial\Omega$ . So there exist a finite number of points  $p_1, \dots, p_n \in \partial\Omega$  such that  $\partial\Omega = \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_{r(p_i)}^o(p_i) \cap \partial\Omega$ . Thus  $\partial\Omega = \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_{r(p_i)}(p_i) \cap \partial\Omega$ , and so  $\partial\Omega$  is a union of a finite number of  $\mathcal{C}$ -curves. From the definition of sector, it is easy to see that each pair of these  $\mathcal{C}$ -curves cannot have infinitely many isolated intersections. This implies that  $\partial\Omega$  can be represented as a union of a finite number of  $\mathcal{C}$ -curves, each pair of which may meet at, at most finitely many points. Thus  $\Omega$  is a  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain.  $\square$

As can be seen from Definition 4.2, the domains can have quite general shapes. We give a special name for the domains with some relatively good geometry.

**Definition 4.3. (Regular Domain)**

A  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domain is called *regular*, if each connected component of  $\partial\Omega$  is homeomorphic to  $S^1$ , and is not itself a connected component of  $\Omega$ .

So, the snowman in Figure 8 is not a regular domain. Also, the Minkowski sum in Figure 2 is a  $\mathcal{C}^{\omega:\omega}$ -domain, but not a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{\omega:\omega}$ -domain. Note that, for any  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ , the number of the connected components of  $\partial\Omega$  should be finite for a  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain  $\Omega$ .

**Lemma 4.3. (Local Condition for Regular Domain)**

Let  $\Omega$  be a connected and compact set in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a class of the curves in  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$  which is closed under restriction. Then the following two conditions are equivalent:

- (1)  $\Omega$  is a regular  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain.
- (2) For every point  $p$  in  $\partial\Omega$ , there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{C}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $\Omega$  is a regular  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain. Let  $p \in \partial\Omega$ . Since  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ , it is easy to see that there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(p) \cap \partial\Omega$  is a union of two  $\mathcal{C}$ -curves  $\gamma_i : [0, a_i] \rightarrow B_r(p)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  such that  $\gamma_1(0) = \gamma_2(0) = p$ ,  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  do not meet except at  $p$ , and the function  $\rho_i : [0, a_i] \rightarrow [0, r]$  defined by  $\rho_i(t) = |\gamma_i(t) - p|$  is a homeomorphism for  $i = 1, 2$ . Note that  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega \neq B_r(p)$ , since  $p \in \partial\Omega$ . So  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega$  is either a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{C}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ , or  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega = \gamma_1([0, a_1]) \cup \gamma_2([0, a_2])$ . Suppose the latter. Then it is easy to see that the connected component of  $\partial\Omega$  which contains  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega$ , is itself a connected component of  $\Omega$ . So we conclude that  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{C}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ . Thus (1) implies (2).

Conversely, suppose (2). Then it is clear that  $\partial\Omega$  is locally homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}$  at every point in  $\partial\Omega$ , and that  $\partial\Omega$  is a disjoint union of a finite number of 1-dimensional (topological) manifolds embedded in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Since  $\partial\Omega$  is bounded, this implies that each of these manifolds should be homeomorphic to  $S^1$ . So  $\partial\Omega$  is a disjoint union of a finite number of sets, each of which is homeomorphic to  $S^1$ . Note that each of these sets consists of a finite number of  $\mathcal{C}$ -curves, since  $S^1$  is compact. From the assumption, it is also obvious that each of the connected components of  $\partial\Omega$  is not itself a connected component of  $\Omega$ . Thus (2) implies (1).  $\square$

*Remark 4.2.* A subset  $\Omega$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{\omega:\omega}$ -domain, if and only if it satisfies the standing assumptions for domains in [2] and [3]. Note that a domain is a  $\mathcal{C}^{\omega:\omega}$ -domain, if and only if it is a  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$ -domain, since a  $\mathcal{C}^{\omega:\omega}$ -curve can be cut into a finite number of  $\mathcal{C}_c^{\omega:\omega}$ -curves.

Finally, we introduce the following terminologies.

**Definition 4.4. (Sharp Corner, Dull Corner and Flat Point)**

Let  $\Omega$  be a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domain. Then a point  $p \in \partial\Omega$  is called a *sharp corner* (resp., *dull corner*, *flat point*), if there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega$  is a sharp sector (resp., dull sector, flat sector) with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ .

Note that the above properties are of a local nature of  $\Omega$  around  $p$ , and thus are independent of the choice of  $r$ .

## 5. VIRTUAL BOUNDARY

In this section, we introduce the concept *virtual boundary* for regular domains. This will enable us to treat the regular domains in a more uniform manner, whether they have corners or not.

Let  $\Omega$  be a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domain. By definition, each connected component of  $\partial\Omega$  is homeomorphic to  $S^1$ . Among them, exactly one is the outer boundary, and the remaining ones are inner boundaries. To each of these components, we give the *standard orientation*, i.e., counter-clockwise orientation to the outer boundary, and clockwise orientation to the inner boundaries. Let  $C$  be a connected component of  $\partial\Omega$ . Fix an orientation-preserving covering map  $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow C$ . Note that for any continuous curve  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow C$ , there exists a lifting of  $\gamma$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  with respect to  $h$ , i.e., a continuous function  $\tilde{\gamma} : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\gamma(t) = h(\tilde{\gamma}(t))$  for  $t \in [a, b]$ . We will use the notation  $O_\Omega(\gamma)$ , which can take the values  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $0$ , and is defined as follows:

$$O_\Omega(\gamma) = \begin{cases} +, & \text{if } \tilde{\gamma}(b) - \tilde{\gamma}(a) > 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } \tilde{\gamma}(b) - \tilde{\gamma}(a) = 0, \\ -, & \text{if } \tilde{\gamma}(b) - \tilde{\gamma}(a) < 0. \end{cases}$$

Note that this definition is independent of the choice of  $h$ . We will say that  $\gamma$  is *in the standard orientation* on  $\Omega$ , if  $O_\Omega(\gamma)$  is  $+$ .

**Definition 5.1. (Normal Cone)**

Let  $\Omega$  be a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domain, and let  $p \in \partial\Omega$ . Let  $\gamma_+, \gamma_- : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow \partial\Omega$  be one-to-one  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -curves such that  $\gamma_+(0) = \gamma_-(0) = p$  and  $O_\Omega(\gamma_\pm) = \pm$ . Then the *normal cone* of  $\Omega$  at  $p$ , denoted by  $\text{NC}_\Omega(p)$ , is defined as follows:

- (1) If  $p$  is a sharp corner, then  $\text{NC}_\Omega(p) = \{\mathbf{n} \in S^1 \mid \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{v}[\gamma_+] \leq 0 \text{ and } \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{v}[\gamma_-] \leq 0\}$ .
- (2) If  $p$  is a dull corner, then  $\text{NC}_\Omega(p) = \{\mathbf{n} \in S^1 \mid \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{v}[\gamma_+] \geq 0 \text{ and } \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{v}[\gamma_-] \geq 0\}$ .
- (3) If  $p$  is a flat point, then  $\text{NC}_\Omega(p)$  consists of the (unit) vector obtained from rotating  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_+]$  clockwise by  $90^\circ$ .

We denote  $\mathbf{v}_\Omega^+(p) = \mathbf{v}[\gamma_+]$  and  $\mathbf{v}_\Omega^-(p) = -\mathbf{v}[\gamma_-]$ . Note that these are independent of the choice of  $\gamma_\pm$ . Note also that  $\mathbf{v}_\Omega^+(p) = \mathbf{v}_\Omega^-(p)$ , if and only if  $p$  is a flat point of  $\Omega$ . In this case, we denote  $\mathbf{v}_\Omega(p) = \mathbf{v}_\Omega^+(p) = \mathbf{v}_\Omega^-(p)$ . We denote by  $\mathbf{n}_\Omega^+(p)$  (resp.,  $\mathbf{n}_\Omega^-(p)$ ,  $\mathbf{n}_\Omega(p)$ ), the vector obtained from rotating  $\mathbf{v}_\Omega^+(p)$  (resp.,  $\mathbf{v}_\Omega^-(p)$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_\Omega(p)$ ) clockwise by  $90^\circ$ . Note that  $\mathbf{n}_\Omega^+(p)$  and  $\mathbf{n}_\Omega^-(p)$  are the two ends of  $\text{NC}_\Omega(p)$ .

**Definition 5.2. (Virtual Boundary)**

Let  $\Omega$  be a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$  domain. Then the *virtual boundary* of  $\Omega$ , denoted by  $\partial^v\Omega$ , is defined to be

$$\partial^v\Omega = \{(p, \mathbf{n}) \in \partial\Omega \times S^1 \mid \mathbf{n} \in \text{NC}_\Omega(p)\}.$$

Let  $\Omega$  be a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domain. Then it is easy to see that  $\partial^v\Omega$  consists of a finite number of connected components, each of which is homeomorphic to  $S^1$ , and the connected components of  $\partial^v\Omega$  are in one-to-one correspondence to those of  $\partial\Omega$ . Thus we can also give the *standard orientation* to each of the connected components of  $\partial^v\Omega$  in an obvious way. Let  $\widehat{C}$  be a connected component of  $\partial^v\Omega$ . Fix an orientation-preserving covering map  $\widehat{h} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \widehat{C}$ . Note that for any continuous map  $\phi : [a, b] \rightarrow \widehat{C}$ , there exists a lifting of  $\phi$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  with respect to  $\widehat{h}$ , i.e., a continuous function  $\widetilde{\phi} : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\phi(t) = \widehat{h}(\widetilde{\phi}(t))$  for  $t \in [a, b]$ . We will also use the notation  $O_\Omega(\phi)$  which can take the values  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $0$ , and is defined as follows:

$$O_\Omega(\phi) = \begin{cases} +, & \text{if } \widetilde{\phi}(b) - \widetilde{\phi}(a) > 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } \widetilde{\phi}(b) - \widetilde{\phi}(a) = 0, \\ -, & \text{if } \widetilde{\phi}(b) - \widetilde{\phi}(a) < 0. \end{cases}$$

Note that this definition is independent of the choice of  $\widehat{h}$ . We will say that  $\phi$  is *in the standard orientation* on  $\Omega$ , if  $O_\Omega(\phi)$  is  $+$ .

Let  $\phi : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \times S^1$ ,  $\phi(t) = (\gamma(t), \mathbf{n}(t))$  be a continuous map. Then there exists a continuous function  $\theta : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mathbf{n}(t) = \mu(\theta(t))$ , where  $\mu(s) = (\cos s, \sin s)$  for  $s \in \mathbb{R}$ . We call  $\theta$  an *angle function* of  $\phi$ . We define  $\Theta(\phi)$ , called the *total angle* of  $\phi$ , by

$$\Theta(\phi) = \theta(b) - \theta(a).$$

Note that, the total angle is independent of the choice of angle functions.

We will use the following notations throughout this paper: Let  $X$  be a topological space. Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow X$  be a continuous curve. Then the curve  $\overline{\gamma} : [a, b] \rightarrow X$  is defined by

$$\overline{\gamma}(t) = \gamma(a + b - t),$$

for  $t \in [a, b]$ . Let  $\gamma_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow X$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  be two continuous curves with  $\gamma_1(b_1) = \gamma_2(a_2)$ . Then the curve  $\gamma = \gamma_1 \cdot \gamma_2 : [a_1, b_1 + b_2 - a_2] \rightarrow X$  is defined by

$$\gamma(t) = \begin{cases} \gamma_1(t), & \text{if } t \in [a_1, b_1], \\ \gamma_2(t - b_1 + a_2), & \text{if } t \in [b_1, b_1 + b_2 - a_2]. \end{cases}$$

We will denote by  $\text{Ind}_\gamma(p)$  the *index* of  $p \in \mathbb{R}^2$  with respect to a continuous closed curve  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p\}$  ( $\gamma(a) = \gamma(b)$ ). It is well-known that the index of a point takes integer values and remains the same if we vary the curve homotopically.

The following lemmas are easy consequences of the above definitions.

**Lemma 5.1.** *Let  $\Omega$  be a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domain, and let  $\phi : [a, b] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega$ ,  $\phi_i : [a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  be continuous maps such that  $\phi_1(b_1) = \phi_2(a_2)$ . Then:*

- (1)  $\Theta(\overline{\phi}) = -\Theta(\phi)$ .
- (2)  $\Theta(\phi_1 \cdot \phi_2) = \Theta(\phi_1) + \Theta(\phi_2)$ .
- (3) *Suppose  $\phi_0 : [a, b] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega$  is a continuous map which is homotopic to  $\phi$  in  $\partial^v\Omega$  relative to  $\phi(a)$  and  $\phi(b)$ , i.e., there exists a continuous map  $H : [a, b] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega$  such that  $H(t, 0) = \phi_0(t)$ ,  $H(t, 1) = \phi(t)$  for  $t \in [a, b]$ , and  $H(a, s) = \phi(a)$ ,  $H(b, s) = \phi(b)$  for  $s \in [0, 1]$ . Then  $\Theta(\phi_0) = \Theta(\phi)$ .*

*Proof.* (1), (2) are obvious from the definitions. For (3), let  $H(t, s) = (\gamma(t, s), \mathbf{n}(t, s))$  for  $(t, s) \in [a, b] \times [0, 1]$ . From the assumption, it is easy to see that there exists a continuous map  $\theta : [a, b] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $(\mu \circ \theta)(t, s) = \mathbf{n}(t, s)$ , where  $\mu : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$  is defined by  $\mu(t) = (\cos t, \sin t)$  for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Thus  $\Theta(\phi_0) = \theta(b, 0) - \theta(a, 0) = \theta(b, 1) - \theta(a, 1) = \Theta(\phi)$ , since  $\mathbf{n}(a, s) = \mathbf{n}(a, 0)$  and  $\mathbf{n}(b, s) = \mathbf{n}(b, 0)$  for every  $s \in [0, 1]$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 5.2.** *Let  $\Omega$  be a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domain, and let  $p \in \text{int}\Omega$ . Let  $\phi : [a, b] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega$ ,  $\phi(t) = (\gamma(t), \mathbf{n}(t))$  be a continuous map such that  $\phi(a) = \phi(b)$  and  $O_\Omega(\phi) = +$ . Let  $C$  be the connected component of  $\partial\Omega$  such that  $\gamma([a, b]) \subset C$ . Then:*

- (1) *If  $\phi|_{[a, b]}$  is one-to-one, then*

$$\Theta(\phi) = \begin{cases} 2\pi, & \text{if } C \text{ is the outer boundary of } \partial\Omega, \\ -2\pi, & \text{if } C \text{ is an inner boundary of } \partial\Omega. \end{cases}$$

(2)

$$\text{Ind}_\gamma(p) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi}\Theta(\phi), & \text{if } C \text{ is the outer boundary,} \\ 0, & \text{if } C \text{ is an inner boundary.} \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* (1) This is an easy consequence of the Gauss-Bonnet theorem (See [17], Theorem 8.4).

(2) It is obvious that  $\text{Ind}_\gamma(p) = 0$ , if  $C$  is an inner boundary. Suppose  $C$  is the outer boundary, and let  $\tilde{C}$  be the connected component of  $\partial^v\Omega$  corresponding to  $C$ . Let  $\phi_0 : [0, 1] \rightarrow \tilde{C}$ ,  $\phi_0(t) = (\gamma_0(t), \mathbf{n}_0(t))$  be a continuous map such that  $\phi_0(0) = \phi_0(1) = \phi(a) = \phi(b)$ ,  $\phi_0|_{[0,1]}$  is one-to-one, and  $O_\Omega(\phi_0) = +$ . By (1), we have  $\Theta(\phi_0) = 2\pi$ . It is easy to see that  $\phi$  is homotopic to  $\underbrace{\phi_0 \cdot \dots \cdot \phi_0}_{\text{Ind}_\gamma(p)}$  if  $\text{Ind}_\gamma(p) > 0$ , to  $\underbrace{\overline{\phi_0} \cdot \dots \cdot \overline{\phi_0}}_{-\text{Ind}_\gamma(p)}$  if  $\text{Ind}_\gamma(p) < 0$ , and to the constant map  $\phi(a) (= \phi(b))$  if  $\text{Ind}_\gamma(p) = 0$ . Now the proof follows from Lemma 5.1.  $\square$

Let  $A$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $p \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then we will denote

$$A + p = \{q + p \mid q \in A\}, \text{ and } -A = \{-q \mid q \in A\}.$$

For later reference, we collect the following elementary facts without proofs which can easily be deduced from the definitions.

**Lemma 5.3.** *Let  $\Omega$  be a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domain, and let  $q \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Let  $p \in \partial\Omega$ , and let  $\phi : [a, b] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega$ ,  $\phi(t) = (\gamma(t), \mathbf{n}(t))$  be a continuous map. Then:*

- (1)  $\mathbf{n}_{\Omega+q}^\pm(p+q) = \mathbf{n}_\Omega^\pm(p)$  and  $\mathbf{v}_{\Omega+q}^\pm(p+q) = \mathbf{v}_\Omega^\pm(p)$ .
- (2)  $\mathbf{n}_{-\Omega}^\pm(-p) = -\mathbf{n}_\Omega^\pm(p)$  and  $\mathbf{v}_{-\Omega}^\pm(-p) = -\mathbf{v}_\Omega^\pm(p)$ .
- (3)  $\Theta(\phi+q) = \Theta(\phi)$ , where  $\phi+q : [a, b] \rightarrow \partial^v(\Omega+q)$  is defined by  $(\phi+q)(t) = (\gamma(t)+q, \mathbf{n}(t))$  for  $t \in [a, b]$ .
- (4)  $\Theta(-\phi) = \Theta(\phi)$ , where  $-\phi : [a, b] \rightarrow \partial^v(-\Omega)$  is defined by  $(-\phi)(t) = (-\gamma(t), -\mathbf{n}(t))$  for  $t \in [a, b]$ .

Now we define the *angle of convexity* of a regular domain. This will be used in defining the *semi-convexity* of domains in Section 7.

**Definition 5.3. (Angle of Convexity)**

Let  $\Omega$  be a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domain. The *angle of convexity* of  $\Omega$ , denoted by  $\Theta(\Omega)$ , is defined by

$$\Theta(\Omega) = \inf\{\Theta(\phi) : \phi \in S\},$$

where  $S$  is the set of all continuous maps from a closed interval to  $\partial^v\Omega$  such that  $O_\Omega(\phi) = +$ .

Finally, we introduce the notion of *contact position* which is important for analyzing the Minkowski sum.

**Definition 5.4. (Contact Position)**

Two regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domains  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  are said to be *in contact position to each other*, if they meet at their boundaries only, i.e., if  $\Omega_1 \cap \Omega_2 = \partial\Omega_1 \cap \partial\Omega_2 \neq \emptyset$ .

Let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be two *simply-connected* regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domains which are in contact position to each other. Let  $U$  be the unbounded component of  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus (\Omega_1 \cup \Omega_2)$ . Suppose  $p_1 \neq p_2$  be two points in  $\partial\Omega_1 \cap \partial\Omega_2$ . For  $i = 1, 2$ , let  $\phi_i : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega_i$ ,  $\phi_i(t) = (\gamma_i(t), \mathbf{n}_i(t))$  be one-to-one continuous maps such that  $\phi_1(0) = (p_1, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_1}^+(p_1))$ ,  $\phi_1(1) = (p_2, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_1}^-(p_2))$ ,  $\phi_2(0) = (p_2, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_2}^+(p_2))$ ,  $\phi_2(1) = (p_1, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_2}^-(p_1))$ , and  $O_{\Omega_1}(\phi_1) = O_{\Omega_2}(\phi_2) = +$ . Note that, by interchanging  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  if necessary, we can assume  $(\gamma_i([0, 1]) \setminus \{p_1, p_2\}) \cap \overline{U} = \emptyset$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Let  $\alpha_1$  (resp.,  $\alpha_2$ ) be the non-negative angle of the counter-clockwise rotation from  $-\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_2}^-(p_1)$  to  $\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_1}^+(p_1)$  (resp., from  $-\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_1}^-(p_2)$  to  $\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_2}^+(p_2)$ ). See Figure 9.

With the above notations, we have the following lemma:

**Lemma 5.4.** *Let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be simply-connected regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domains which are in contact position to each other. Suppose  $p_1 \neq p_2 \in \partial\Omega_1 \cap \partial\Omega_2$  and  $\alpha_i$ ,  $\phi_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$  be given as above. Then:*

- (1)  $\Theta(\phi_1) + \Theta(\phi_2) + \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 0$ .
- (2) If  $\Theta(\Omega_1), \Theta(\Omega_2) \geq -\Theta$  for some  $\Theta \geq 0$ , then  $-\Theta \leq \Theta(\phi_i) \leq \Theta$  for  $i = 1, 2$ .
- (3) There exists a continuous map  $H : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \overline{V}$ , such that  $H(t, 0) = \gamma_1(t)$ ,  $H(t, 1) = \overline{\gamma_2}(t)$  for  $t \in [0, 1]$ , and  $H(0, s) = p_1$ ,  $H(1, s) = p_2$  for  $s \in [0, 1]$ , where  $V$  is the region in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus (\Omega_1 \cup \Omega_2)$  bounded by  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$ .

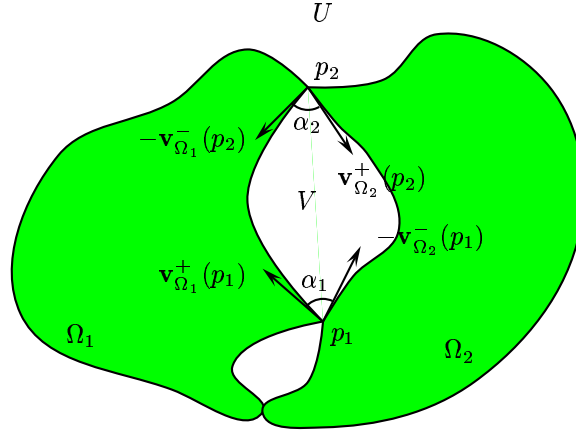


FIGURE 9. Contact Position

*Proof.* (1) This is an easy consequence of Lemma 5.2.

(2) By (1), we have  $\Theta(\phi_1) = -\Theta(\phi_2) - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2$ . Since  $\Theta(\Omega_1), \Theta(\Omega_2) \geq -\Theta$ , we have  $\Theta(\phi_1), \Theta(\phi_2) \geq -\Theta$ . Note that  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \geq 0$  by definition. Thus we have  $\Theta(\phi_1) \leq \Theta$ . We can also see that  $\Theta(\phi_2) \leq \Theta$  in the same way.

(3) Obvious. See figure 9.  $\square$

## 6. MINKOWSKI SUM OF DOMAINS

Now we consider the Minkowski sum of domains. For reasonable results, we restrict our analysis to  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains, where  $\mathcal{M}$  is a Minkowski class. After introducing the preliminary facts in Section 6.1, we analyze the behaviour of the Minkowski sum of  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors in Sections 6.2 and 6.3. Finally, by using these results, we show in Section 6.4 that the set of all  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is closed under the Minkowski sum for any Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ .

**6.1. Preliminaries.** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . We define

$$A + B = \{p + q \mid p \in A, q \in B\},$$

and call it the *Minkowski sum* of  $A$  and  $B$ . The map  $M_{A,B} : A \times B \rightarrow A + B$ , defined by  $M_{A,B}(p, q) = p + q$  for  $p \in A, q \in B$ , is called the *Minkowski map* associated to  $A$  and  $B$ . Note that  $M_{A,B}$  is continuous for any  $A, B \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . The following are easy consequences of the definition.

**Lemma 6.1.** *Let  $A, B \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . Suppose  $A = \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$  and  $B = \bigcup_{j \in J} B_j$ . Then,*

$$A + B = \bigcup_{i \in I, j \in J} (A_i + B_j).$$

*Proof.*  $\supseteq$  is trivial. Suppose  $p \in A + B$ . Then there exist  $p_1 \in A$  and  $p_2 \in B$  such that  $p = p_1 + p_2$ . So there exist  $i \in I$  and  $j \in J$  such that  $p_1 \in A_i$  and  $p_2 \in B_j$ . This shows  $\subseteq$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 6.2.** *Let  $A, B \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ , and let  $p \in \partial(A + B)$ . Then, for any  $p_1 \in A$  and  $p_2 \in B$  such that  $p = p_1 + p_2$ , we have  $p_1 \in \partial A$  and  $p_2 \in \partial B$ . Equivalently, we have*

$$M_{A,B}^{-1}(\partial(A + B)) \subset \partial A \times \partial B.$$

*Proof.* Suppose  $p_1 \in \text{int} A$ . Then we can take a small ball  $B_r(p_1)$  around  $p_1$  such that  $B_r(p_1) \subset A$ . Clearly,  $B_r(p) = B_r(p_1) + p_2 \subset A + B$ , and this implies that  $p \in \text{int}(A + B)$ . This is a contradiction to the assumption, and we conclude  $p_1 \in \partial A$ . In the same way, we can show that  $p_2 \in \partial B$ , and we have the proof.  $\square$

**Lemma 6.3.** *Let  $\Omega_1, \Omega_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ , and let  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$ . Let  $p \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then we have:*

- (1)  $p \in \Omega$ , if and only if  $\Omega_1 \cap (-\Omega_2 + p) \neq \emptyset$ .
- (2) If  $\text{int} \Omega_1 \cap (-\Omega_2 + p) \neq \emptyset$ , then  $p \in \text{int} \Omega$ .
- (3) Suppose  $\Omega_1, \Omega_2$  are regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domains. If  $p \in \partial \Omega$ , then the two domains  $\Omega_1$  and  $-\Omega_2 + p$  are in contact position to each other.



*Proof.* Suppose  $p \in \Omega$ . Then there exist  $p_1 \in \Omega_1$  and  $p_2 \in \Omega_2$  such that  $p_1 + p_2 = p$ . So we have  $\Omega_1 \ni p_1 = -p_2 + p \in -\Omega_2 + p$ , which means that  $\Omega_1 \cap (-\Omega_2 + p) \neq \emptyset$ . Conversely, suppose  $\Omega_1 \cap (-\Omega_2 + p) \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $p_1 \in \Omega_1 \cap (-\Omega_2 + p)$ . Then there exists  $p_2 \in \Omega_2$  such that  $p_1 = -p_2 + p$ . Thus  $p = p_1 + p_2 \in \Omega$ . This shows (1).

Suppose  $p_1 \in \text{int}\Omega_1 \cap (-\Omega_2 + p)$ . Let  $p_2 = -p_1 + p$ . Then  $p_2 \in \Omega_2$ , and  $p = p_1 + p_2 \in \Omega$ . Since  $p_1 \in \text{int}\Omega_1$ , we have  $p \notin \partial\Omega$  by Lemma 6.2. Thus  $p \in \text{int}\Omega$ . This shows (2).

Suppose  $p \in \partial\Omega$ . By (1),  $\Omega_1 \cap (-\Omega_2 + p) \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $p_1 \in \Omega_1 \cap (-\Omega_2 + p)$ , and let  $p_2 = -p_1 + p$ . Then we have  $p_1 \in \Omega_1$ ,  $p_2 \in \Omega_2$  and  $p_1 + p_2 = p$ . By Lemma 6.2,  $p_1 \in \partial\Omega_1$  and  $p_2 \in \partial\Omega_2$ , and so  $p_1 = -p_2 + p \in \partial(-\Omega_2 + p)$ . Thus  $p_1 \in \partial\Omega_1 \cap \partial(-\Omega_2 + p)$ . Since  $p_1$  is taken arbitrarily, it follows that  $\Omega_1$  and  $-\Omega_2 + p$  are in contact position to each other. This shows (3).  $\square$

*Remark 6.1.* The converse of (3) in Lemma 6.3 is false; It is possible that  $\Omega_1$  and  $-\Omega_2 + p$  are in contact position to each other, but still  $p \notin \partial\Omega$ .

**Definition 6.1. (Admissible Sectors)**

Two  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -sectors  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  with respective centers  $p_1, p_2$  and radius  $r$  are said to be *admissible* to each other, if they satisfy the following conditions:

- (1)  $\text{int}(S_1 - p_1) \cap (-S_2 - p_2) = \emptyset$  and  $\text{int}(S_2 - p_2) \cap (-S_1 - p_1) = \emptyset$ .
- (2) For  $i = 1, 2$ , let  $\gamma_i$  be the end curve or the start curve of  $S_i$ . If the two curves  $\gamma_1 - p_1$  and  $-(\gamma_2 - p_2)$  (or equivalently,  $-(\gamma_1 - p_1)$  and  $\gamma_2 - p_2$ ) meet at a point in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  other than 0, then  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  have the same image.

It is easy to see that if  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are admissible to each other, then  $B_{r'}(p_1) \cap S_1$  and  $B_{r'}(p_2) \cap S_2$  are also admissible to each other for every  $0 < r' \leq r$ .

**Lemma 6.4.** *Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be two  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains. Let  $p_1 \in \partial\Omega_1$  and  $p_2 \in \partial\Omega_2$ . Suppose  $p = p_1 + p_2 \in \partial\Omega$ , where  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$ . Then for every sufficiently small  $r > 0$ , we have:*

- (1) *For  $i = 1, 2$ ,  $B_r(p_i) \cap \Omega_i = \bigcup_{k=1}^{n_i} S_i^k$ , where  $S_i^k$  is an  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p_i$  and radius  $r$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n_i$ , and  $S_i^k$ 's are mutually non-overlapping.*
- (2)  *$S_1^k$  and  $S_2^l$  are admissible to each other for every  $k = 1, \dots, n_1$  and  $l = 1, \dots, n_2$ .*

*Proof.* (1) follows from Lemma 4.2. For (2), fix  $S_1^k$  and  $S_2^l$ . Let  $\alpha_1, \beta_1$  be the end curve and the start curve of  $S_1^k - p_1$  respectively, and let  $\alpha_2, \beta_2$  be the end curve and the start curve of  $-(S_2^l - p_2)$  respectively. Note that  $S_1^k - p_1$  and  $-(S_2^l - p_2)$  are  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center 0 and radius  $r$ . Since  $\mathcal{M}$  is a Minkowski class, we can assume that any two of  $\alpha_1, \beta_1, \alpha_2, \beta_2$  either have the same image, or do not meet except at 0. So, if  $S_1^k$  and  $S_2^l$  are not admissible, then we would have either  $\text{int}S_1^k \cap (-S_2^l + p) \neq \emptyset$  or  $\text{int}S_2^l \cap (-S_1^k + p) \neq \emptyset$ . Then by Lemma 6.3 (2), we would have  $p \in \text{int}\Omega$ , which is a contradiction. So  $S_1^k$  and  $S_2^l$  are admissible to each other.  $\square$

Let  $S$  be a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -sectors  $S_1, \dots, S_n$  with center  $p$  and radius  $r > 0$ . Then we denote  $C(S) = \bigcup_{k=1}^n C(S_k)$ .

**Lemma 6.5.** *Let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be two  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domains, and let  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$ . Let  $p_1 \in \partial\Omega_1, p_2 \in \partial\Omega_2$ , and choose  $r > 0$  such that  $S_i = B_r(p_i) \cap \Omega_i$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -sectors with center  $p_i$  and radius  $r$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Suppose  $(p_1, p_2) \in M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(\partial\Omega)$  and  $S_1$  is a flat  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -sector with center  $p_1$  and radius  $r$ . Then  $C(S_2) \subset C(S_1)$ .*

*Proof.* With no loss of generality, assume  $C(S_1) = \{(x, y) \in S^1 \mid y \leq 0\}$ . Suppose  $C(S_2) \not\subset C(S_1)$ . Then there exists a  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -curve  $\gamma : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow S_2$  such that  $\gamma(0) = p_2$  and  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma] \notin C(S_1)$ . So we have  $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = p_1$ ,  $\tilde{\gamma}([0, \epsilon]) \subset -S_2 + p$ , and  $\mathbf{v}[\tilde{\gamma}] \in \{(x, y) \in S^1 \mid y < 0\}$ , where  $p = p_1 + p_2$  and the  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -curve  $\tilde{\gamma} : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is defined by  $\tilde{\gamma}(t) = -\gamma(t) + p$  for  $t \in [0, \epsilon]$ . It follows that  $\text{int}S_1 \cap (-S_2 + p) \neq \emptyset$ . So by Lemma 6.3 (2),  $p \in \text{int}(S_1 + S_2) \subset \text{int}\Omega$ , which is a contradiction. Thus  $C(S_2) \subset C(S_1)$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 6.6.** *Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a subclass of  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$  which is closed under restriction, and let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be two  $\mathcal{C}$ -domains. Let  $p \in \partial\Omega$ , where  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$ . Then for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exist  $0 < r_1, \dots, r_n < \epsilon$  and  $(p_1^1, p_2^1), \dots, (p_1^n, p_2^n)$  in  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p)$  for some  $1 \leq n < \infty$ , such that each  $B_{r_k}(p_i^k) \cap \Omega_i$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{C}$ -sectors with center  $p_i^k$  and radius  $r_k$ , and  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p) \subset U$ , where*

$$U = \bigcup_{k=1}^n (B_{r_k}^o(p_1^k) \cap \Omega_1) \times (B_{r_k}^o(p_2^k) \cap \Omega_2).$$

*Proof.* By Lemma 6.2,  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p) \subset \partial\Omega_1 \times \partial\Omega_2$ . So, by Lemma 4.2, we can choose  $0 < r(p_1, p_2) < \epsilon$  for each  $(p_1, p_2) \in M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p)$ , such that  $B_{r(p_1, p_2)}(p_i) \cap \Omega_i$  is a finite union of  $\mathcal{C}$ -sectors with center  $p_i$  and radius  $r(p_1, p_2)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Note that  $\left\{ \left( B_{r(p_1, p_2)}^o(p_1) \cap \Omega_1 \right) \times \left( B_{r(p_1, p_2)}^o(p_2) \cap \Omega_2 \right) : (p_1, p_2) \in M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p) \right\}$  is an open cover of the compact set  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p)$  in  $\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2$ . Thus there exists a finite subcover  $\{ (B_{r_k}^o(p_1^k) \cap \Omega_1) \times (B_{r_k}^o(p_2^k) \cap \Omega_2) : 1 \leq k \leq n \}$ , which completes the proof.  $\square$

**6.2. Minkowski Sum of Admissible Sectors.** Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be a continuous curve. We define  $\hat{\gamma} : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$\hat{\gamma}(t) = \gamma(a + b - t) + \gamma(a) - \gamma(b).$$

Note that, if we translate the image of  $\gamma$  so that  $\gamma(b)$  is moved to  $\gamma(a)$ , then we get the image of  $\hat{\gamma}$ . Note also that  $\hat{\gamma}(a) = \gamma(a)$ . See Figure 10.

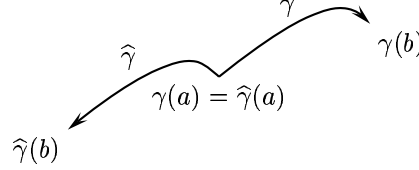


FIGURE 10.  $\gamma$  and  $\hat{\gamma}$

**Lemma 6.7.** *Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be two admissible  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center 0 and radius  $R > 0$ . For some sufficiently small  $0 < r \leq R$ , let  $S'_i = B_r(0) \cap S_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , and let  $S = S'_1 + S'_2$ . Let  $\alpha_i$  and  $\beta_i$  be the end curve and the start curve of  $S'_i$  respectively for  $i = 1, 2$ . Then, for every sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ , the set  $B_\rho(0) \cap \partial S$  is contained in the union of the images of the following curves:*

- (1)  $\alpha_1, \beta_1, \alpha_2, \beta_2$ .
- (2)  $\alpha_1 * \alpha_2, \alpha_1 * \beta_2, \beta_1 * \alpha_2, \beta_1 * \beta_2$  (if defined).
- (3)  $\widehat{\alpha_1}, \widehat{\beta_2}$  (if  $\alpha_1, -\beta_2$  have the same image), and  $\widehat{\beta_1}, \widehat{\alpha_2}$  (if  $\beta_1, -\alpha_2$  have the same image).

*Proof.* With abuse of notation, we will denote the image of a curve  $\gamma$  also by  $\gamma$ . Denote  $M = M_{S'_1, S'_2}$ . Note that  $M^{-1}(\partial S) \subset \partial S'_1 \times \partial S'_2$  by Lemma 6.2. Let  $A_i = \partial S'_i \setminus (\alpha_i \cup \beta_i)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Then we have  $\partial S'_1 \times \partial S'_2 = (A_1 \times A_2) \cup (A_1 \times (\alpha_2 \cup \beta_2)) \cup ((\alpha_1 \cup \beta_1) \times A_2) \cup ((\alpha_1 \cup \beta_1) \times (\alpha_2 \cup \beta_2))$ . Suppose  $M((p_1, p_2)) \in \partial S$  for some  $(p_1, p_2) \in A_1 \times A_2$ . Let  $p = p_1 + p_2$ . By applying Lemma 6.5, it is easy to see that  $p_1 = p_2$ . So  $|p| = |2p_1| = 2r$ . This shows that  $M(A_1 \times A_2) \cap (B_\rho(0) \cap \partial S) = \emptyset$  for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ .

Suppose that  $\{(p_1^n, p_2^n)\}$  is a sequence in  $(A_1 \times (\alpha_2 \cup \beta_2)) \cup ((\alpha_1 \cup \beta_1) \times A_2)$  such that  $M((p_1^n, p_2^n)) = p_1^n + p_2^n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . With no loss of generality, we can assume that  $(p_1^n, p_2^n) \in A_1 \times (\alpha_2 \cup \beta_2)$  for every  $n$ . Suppose  $\alpha_i(0) = \beta_i(0) = 0$  and  $|\alpha_i(a_i)| = |\beta_i(b_i)| = r$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Since  $p_1^n \in A_1$ ,  $p_2^n \in \alpha_2 \cup \beta_2$ , and  $S'_1, S'_2$  are admissible, it is easy to see that there exists a subsequence  $\{p_1^{n_k}\}$  such that either  $p_1^{n_k} \rightarrow \alpha_1(a_1)$  or  $p_1^{n_k} \rightarrow \beta_1(b_1)$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . Denote this subsequence again by  $\{p_1^n\}$ , and assume with no loss of generality that  $p_1^n \rightarrow \alpha_1(a_1)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Since  $S'_1$  and  $S'_2$  are admissible to each other, it follows that  $\beta_2(b_2) = -\alpha_1(a_1)$  and  $p_2^n \rightarrow \beta_2(b_2)$ . So we must have  $\alpha_1 \approx -\beta_2$ . Since we have assumed  $r$  to be sufficiently small, we can also assume that  $\beta_2$  and  $\partial B_r(0)$  meet transversally at  $\beta_2(b_2)$ . So, from Lemma 6.5, it is easy to see that  $(p_1^n, p_2^n) \notin \partial S$  for every sufficiently large  $n$ . Thus we conclude that  $M((A_1 \times (\alpha_2 \cup \beta_2)) \cup ((\alpha_1 \cup \beta_1) \times A_2)) \cap (B_\rho(0) \cap \partial S) = \emptyset$  for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ .

It follows that  $B_\rho(0) \cap \partial S \subset M((\alpha_1 \cup \beta_1) \times (\alpha_2 \cup \beta_2))$  for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ . Denote  $\alpha_i^o = \alpha_i((0, a_i))$  and  $\beta_i^o = \beta_i((0, b_i))$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . We divide  $(\alpha_1 \cup \beta_1) \times (\alpha_2 \cup \beta_2)$  into the four parts  $\alpha_1^o \times \alpha_2^o, \beta_1^o \times \beta_2^o, \alpha_1^o \times \beta_2^o, \beta_1^o \times \alpha_2^o$ , and the twelve parts  $\alpha_1 \times \{0\}, \beta_1 \times \{0\}, \{0\} \times \alpha_2, \{0\} \times \beta_2, \alpha_1 \times \{\alpha_2(a_2)\}, \alpha_1 \times \{\beta_2(b_2)\}, \beta_1 \times \{\alpha_2(a_2)\}, \beta_1 \times \{\beta_2(b_2)\}, \{\alpha_1(a_1)\} \times \alpha_2, \{\beta_1(b_1)\} \times \alpha_2, \{\alpha_1(a_1)\} \times \beta_2, \{\beta_1(b_1)\} \times \beta_2$ . Since  $r$  is assumed small, it is easy to see from Lemma 6.5 that the intersections of  $\partial S$  and the images of the first four parts under  $M$  are contained in the union of  $\alpha_1 * \alpha_2, \beta_1 * \beta_2, \alpha_1 * \beta_2, \alpha_2 * \beta_1$ . The images of the last twelve parts under  $M$  are  $\alpha_1, \beta_1, \alpha_2, \beta_2, \alpha_1 + \alpha_2(a_2), \alpha_1 + \beta_2(b_2), \beta_1 + \alpha_2(a_2), \beta_1 + \beta_2(b_2), \alpha_2 + \alpha_1(a_1), \alpha_2 + \beta_1(b_1), \beta_2 + \alpha_1(a_1), \beta_2 + \beta_1(b_1)$  respectively. It is easy to see that, if  $0 \in \alpha_1 + \beta_2(b_2)$ , then  $\beta_2(b_2) = -\alpha_1(a_1)$  and  $\alpha_1 + \beta_2(b_2) = \widehat{\alpha_1}$ , since  $\beta_2(b_2) \in \partial B_r(0)$  and  $\alpha_1 \cap \partial B_r(0) = \alpha_1(a_1)$ . Also, if  $0 \in \alpha_1 + \alpha_2(a_2)$ , then  $\alpha_2(a_2) = -\alpha_1(a_1)$ , which implies  $\beta_2(b_2) = -\alpha_1(a_1)$  and  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2(a_2) = \widehat{\alpha_1}$ , since  $S'_1$  and  $S'_2$  are admissible to each other. Applying

the same argument to the eight curves,  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2(a_2)$ ,  $\alpha_1 + \beta_2(b_2)$ ,  $\beta_1 + \alpha_2(a_2)$ ,  $\beta_1 + \beta_2(b_2)$ ,  $\alpha_2 + \alpha_1(a_1)$ ,  $\alpha_2 + \beta_1(b_1)$ ,  $\beta_2 + \alpha_1(a_1)$ ,  $\beta_2 + \beta_1(b_1)$ , we can see that, among these curves, the ones containing 0 are  $\widehat{\alpha_1}$ ,  $\widehat{\beta_2}$  (if  $\alpha_1, -\beta_2$  have the same image), and  $\widehat{\beta_1}$ ,  $\widehat{\alpha_2}$  (if  $\beta_1, -\alpha_2$  have the same image). Now summarizing the above arguments, we have the desired result.  $\square$

From the above result, we are now able to derive the following theorem:

**Theorem 6.1. (Minkowski Sum of Admissible Sectors)**

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $S_1, S_2$  be admissible  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with respective centers  $p_1, p_2$  and radius  $R > 0$ . Let  $S'_i = B_r(p_i) \cap S_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$  for some sufficiently small  $0 < r < R$ , and let  $S = S'_1 + S'_2$ . Then, for every sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ , either  $B_\rho(p) \cap S = B_\rho(p)$ , or  $B_\rho(p) \cap S$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$ , where  $p = p_1 + p_2$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $B_\rho(p) \cap S = [B_\rho(0) \cap \{(S'_1 - p_1) + (S'_2 - p_2)\}] + p$  for every  $r > 0$  and  $\rho > 0$ . So we can assume with no loss of generality that  $p_1 = p_2 = 0$ . By Lemma 6.7, we can take a finite number of  $\mathcal{M}$ -curves  $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  for some  $n \geq 1$  such that  $\gamma_1(0) = \dots = \gamma_n(0) = 0$  and  $B_\rho(0) \cap \partial S \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^n \gamma_k([0, \epsilon]) \subset S$  for every sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ . Since  $\mathcal{M}$  is a Minkowski class, we can assume that, for every sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ ,  $\gamma_k([0, \epsilon]) \cap \partial B_\rho(0)$  consists of exactly one point for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , and  $\gamma_i([0, \epsilon]) \cap \gamma_j([0, \epsilon]) = \{0\}$  for every  $i \neq j$ . Since  $\partial S$  is compact and  $\rho$  is small, we can assume that either  $B_\rho(0) \cap \partial S = \emptyset$ , or there exists  $0 < m \leq n$  such that  $B_\rho(0) \cap \partial S = \bigcup_{k=1}^m \gamma_k([0, \epsilon])$ .  $\square$

**6.3. Minkowski Sum of Admissible Non-degenerate Sectors.** When both  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are non-degenerate, we have more refined results, which will provide a local building block for dealing with the semi-convexity later.

**Lemma 6.8.** Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $S_1, S_2$  be non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center 0 and radius  $r > 0$ , which are admissible to each other. Suppose there exist  $r_1, \dots, r_n > 0$  and  $(p_1^1, p_2^1), \dots, (p_1^n, p_2^n) \in M_{S_1, S_2}^{-1}(0)$  such that  $B_{r_k}(p_i^k) \cap S_i$  is an  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p_i^k$  and radius  $r_k$  for each  $i$  and  $k$ , and  $M_{S_1, S_2}^{-1}(0) \subset U$ , where  $U = \bigcup_{k=1}^n (B_{r_k}^o(p_1^k) \cap S_1) \times (B_{r_k}^o(p_2^k) \cap S_2)$ . Then  $M_{S_1, S_2}(U \setminus M_{S_1, S_2}^{-1}(0))$  is connected.

*Proof.* Denote  $M = M_{S_1, S_2}$ , and denote the image of a curve  $\gamma$  also by  $\gamma$ . Let  $U_k = (B_{r_k}^o(p_1^k) \cap S_1) \times (B_{r_k}^o(p_2^k) \cap S_2)$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ . Note that  $M(U \setminus M^{-1}(0)) = \bigcup_{k=1}^n M(U_k \setminus M^{-1}(0))$ . Since  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are admissible, we must have  $(p_1^1, p_2^1), \dots, (p_1^n, p_2^n) \in (\alpha_1 \cup \beta_1) \times (\alpha_2 \cup \beta_2)$ , where  $\alpha_i, \beta_i : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow S_i$  are the end curve and the start curve of  $S_i$  respectively for  $i = 1, 2$ . We first show that  $U_k \setminus M^{-1}(0)$  is connected for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ . Let  $(q_1^1, q_2^1), (q_1^2, q_2^2) \in U_k \setminus M^{-1}(0)$ . It is easy to see that  $B_{r_k}(p_1^k) \cap S_1$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p_1^k$  and radius  $r_k$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ . So we can take a continuous curve  $\gamma_1 : [0, 1] \rightarrow B_{r_k}^o(p_1^k) \cap S_1$  such that  $\gamma_1(0) = q_1^1$ ,  $\gamma_1(1) = q_1^2$ , and  $\gamma_1((0, 1)) \subset \text{int}(B_{r_k}^o(p_1^k) \cap S_1)$ . Take any continuous curve  $\gamma_2 : [0, 1] \rightarrow B_{r_k}^o(p_2^k) \cap S_2$  such that  $\gamma_2(0) = q_2^1$ ,  $\gamma_2(1) = q_2^2$ . Define  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow U_k$  by  $\gamma(t) = (\gamma_1(t), \gamma_2(t))$ . Since the set  $\{p_1 \mid (p_1, p_2) \in M^{-1}(0) \text{ for some } p_2 \in \Omega_2\}$  is contained in  $\alpha_1 \cup \beta_1$ , it follows that  $\text{int}(B_{r_k}^o(p_1^k) \cap S_1) \cap \{p_1 \mid (p_1, p_2) \in M^{-1}(0) \text{ for some } p_2 \in \Omega_2\} = \emptyset$ . Thus  $\gamma([0, 1]) \in U_k \setminus M^{-1}(0)$ , and this shows  $U_k \setminus M^{-1}(0)$  is connected for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ .

Now, since  $S_1, S_2$  are admissible to each other, we can assume that  $M^{-1}(0)$  is one of  $\{(0, 0)\}, \{(\alpha_1(t), \beta_2(t)) \mid 0 \leq t \leq \epsilon\}, \{(\beta_1(t), \alpha_2(t)) \mid 0 \leq t \leq \epsilon\}$ , or  $\{(\alpha_1(t), \beta_2(t)) \mid 0 \leq t \leq \epsilon\} \cup \{(\beta_1(t), \alpha_2(t)) \mid 0 \leq t \leq \epsilon\}$ . So we can assume with no loss of generality that  $(U_k \setminus M^{-1}(0)) \cap (U_{k+1} \setminus M^{-1}(0)) \neq \emptyset$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n-1$ , since  $M^{-1}(0) \subset U$ . So the set  $U \setminus M^{-1}(0) = \bigcup_{k=1}^n (U_k \setminus M^{-1}(0))$  is connected. Thus  $M(U \setminus M^{-1}(0))$  is connected, since  $M$  is continuous.  $\square$

**Theorem 6.2. (Minkowski Sum of Admissible Non-degenerate Sectors)**

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $S_1, S_2$  be non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with respective centers  $p_1, p_2$  and radius  $R > 0$ , which are admissible to each other. Let  $S = S'_1 + S'_2$ , where  $S'_i = B_r(p_i) \cap S_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$  for some sufficiently small  $0 < r < R$ . Let  $p = p_1 + p_2$ . Suppose  $B_\rho(p) \cap S \neq B_\rho(p)$  for every  $\rho > 0$ . Then, for every sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ , we have the following:

1.  $B_\rho(p) \cap S$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$ .
2. Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be the end curve and the start curve of  $B_\rho(p) \cap S$ . Suppose that the image of  $\alpha$  (resp.,  $\beta$ ) is contained in one of the images of  $\alpha_1 + p_2, \beta_1 + p_2, \alpha_2 + p_1, \beta_2 + p_1, \alpha_1 * \alpha_2, \beta_1 * \beta_2, \alpha_1 * \beta_2, \beta_1 * \alpha_2$ , where  $\alpha_i$  and  $\beta_i$  are the end curve and the start curve of  $S'_i$  respectively for  $i = 1, 2$ . Then there exists a continuous map  $\phi_i^\alpha : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow \partial^v S'_i$ ,  $\phi_i^\alpha(t) = (\gamma_i^\alpha(t), \mathbf{n}_i^\alpha(t))$  (resp.,  $\phi_i^\beta : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow \partial^v S'_i$ ,  $\phi_i^\beta(t) = (\gamma_i^\beta(t), \mathbf{n}_i^\beta(t))$ ) for  $i = 1, 2$ , with the following properties:

- (1)  $\gamma_1^\alpha(0) = p_1$  and  $\gamma_2^\alpha(0) = p_2$  (*resp.*,  $\gamma_1^\beta(0) = p_1$  and  $\gamma_2^\beta(0) = p_2$ ).  
(2)  $\alpha(t) = \gamma_1^\alpha(t) + \gamma_2^\alpha(t)$  (*resp.*,  $\beta(t) = \gamma_1^\beta(t) + \gamma_2^\beta(t)$ ), for every  $t \in [0, \epsilon]$ .  
(3)  $\mathbf{n}_{B_\rho(p) \cap S}^+(\alpha(t)) = \mathbf{n}_1^\alpha(t) = \mathbf{n}_2^\alpha(t)$  (*resp.*,  $\mathbf{n}_{B_\rho(p) \cap S}^-(\beta(t)) = \mathbf{n}_1^\beta(t) = \mathbf{n}_2^\beta(t)$ ), for every  $t \in [0, \epsilon]$ .  
(4) For  $i = 1, 2$ ,  $\phi_i^\alpha$  and  $\gamma_i^\alpha$  (*resp.*,  $\phi_i^\beta$  and  $\gamma_i^\beta$ ) are either one-to-one or constant, and, if one of  $O_{S_1}(\gamma_1^\alpha)$  and  $O_{S_2}(\gamma_2^\alpha)$  (*resp.*,  $O_{S_1}(\gamma_1^\beta)$  and  $O_{S_2}(\gamma_2^\beta)$ ) is  $-$  (*resp.*,  $+$ ), then the other is  $+$  (*resp.*,  $-$ ).  
3. Suppose that the image of  $\alpha$  (*resp.*,  $\beta$ ) is not contained in any of the images of  $\alpha_1 + p_2$ ,  $\beta_1 + p_2$ ,  $\alpha_2 + p_1$ ,  $\beta_2 + p_1$ ,  $\alpha_1 * \alpha_2$ ,  $\beta_1 * \beta_2$ ,  $\alpha_1 * \beta_2$ ,  $\beta_1 * \alpha_2$ . Then  $\alpha \setminus \{p\} \subset \text{int}(S_1 + S_2)$  (*resp.*,  $\beta \setminus \{p\} \subset \text{int}(S_1 + S_2)$ ).

*Proof.* We will denote  $M_{S'_1, S'_2}$  by  $M$ . Note that we can assume  $p_1 = p_2 = 0$  with no loss of generality. By Theorem 6.1,  $B_\rho(0) \cap S$  is either  $B_\rho(0)$  or a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center 0 and radius  $\rho$ , for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ . Note that  $S'_1$  and  $S'_2$  are non-degenerate. So by Lemma 6.6, there exist  $0 < r_1, \dots, r_n < \rho/2$  and  $(p_1^1, p_2^1), \dots, (p_1^n, p_2^n) \in M^{-1}(0)$ , such that  $B_{r_k}(p_i^k) \cap S'_i$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p_i^k$  and radius  $r_k$  for  $i = 1, 2$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , and  $M^{-1}(0) \subset U$ , where  $U = \bigcup_{k=1}^n (B_{r_k}^o(p_1^k) \cap S'_1) \times (B_{r_k}^o(p_2^k) \cap S'_2)$ . Note that  $M((S'_1 \times S'_2) \setminus U)$  is compact and does not contain 0. So there exists  $0 < \epsilon < \rho$  such that  $B_\epsilon(0) \cap M((S'_1 \times S'_2) \setminus U) = \emptyset$ . It follows that  $B_\epsilon(0) \cap S = B_\epsilon(0) \cap M(U)$ . Since  $r_k < \rho/2$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , it is clear that  $M(U \setminus M^{-1}(0)) \subset B_\rho(0) \cap (S \setminus \{0\})$ . By Lemma 6.8,  $M(U \setminus M^{-1}(0))$  is connected, since both  $S'_1$  and  $S'_2$  are non-degenerate. So  $M(U \setminus M^{-1}(0))$  is contained in one connected component of  $B_\rho(0) \cap (S \setminus \{0\})$ . Since  $B_\epsilon(0) \cap S = B_\epsilon(0) \cap M(U)$ , it follows that  $B_\rho(0) \cap (S \setminus \{0\})$  has exactly one connected component. This implies that  $B_\rho(0) \cap S$  is an  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center 0 and radius  $\rho$ , since we assumed that  $B_\rho(0) \cap S \neq B_\rho(0)$ . Since  $0 \in S'_1, S'_2$ , we have  $B_\rho(0) \cap S'_1, B_\rho(0) \cap S'_2 \subset B_\rho(0) \cap S$ . So we conclude that  $B_\rho(0) \cap S$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center 0 and radius  $\rho$ , since  $S'_1$  and  $S'_2$  are non-degenerate. Thus we showed 1.

Suppose the image of  $\alpha$  (*resp.*,  $\beta$ ) is contained in one of the images of the curves  $\alpha_1, \beta_1, \alpha_2, \beta_2, \alpha_1 * \alpha_2, \beta_1 * \beta_2, \alpha_1 * \beta_2, \beta_1 * \alpha_2$ . We assume with no loss of generality that the curves  $\alpha_1, \beta_1, \alpha_2, \beta_2, \alpha_1 * \alpha_2, \beta_1 * \beta_2, \alpha_1 * \beta_2, \beta_1 * \alpha_2$  and  $\alpha, \beta$  are parametrized as follows:  $\gamma(0) = 0$  for any  $\gamma$  among the above curves, and, for any  $*$ -admissible  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  among the above curves,  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1](t) \neq \mathbf{v}[\gamma_2](t)$  for every feasible  $t$ . Now, depending on in which the image of  $\alpha$  (*resp.*,  $\beta$ ) is contained among the images of the curves  $\alpha_1, \beta_1, \alpha_2, \beta_2, \alpha_1 * \alpha_2, \beta_1 * \beta_2, \alpha_1 * \beta_2, \beta_1 * \alpha_2$ , we construct  $\phi_i^\alpha : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow \partial^v S'_i$  (*resp.*,  $\phi_i^\beta : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow \partial^v S'_i$ ) for  $i = 1, 2$  as follows:

$\alpha$ ( <i>resp.</i> , $\beta$ )	$\phi_1^\alpha(t)$ ( <i>resp.</i> , $\phi_1^\beta(t)$ )	$\phi_2^\alpha(t)$ ( <i>resp.</i> , $\phi_2^\beta(t)$ )
$\alpha_1$	$(\alpha_1(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_1}^+(\alpha_1(t)))$	$(0, \mathbf{n}_{S'_1}^+(\alpha_1(t)))$
$\beta_1$	$(\beta_1(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_1}^-(\beta_1(t)))$	$(0, \mathbf{n}_{S'_1}^-(\beta_1(t)))$
$\alpha_2$	$(0, \mathbf{n}_{S'_2}^+(\alpha_2(t)))$	$(\alpha_2(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_2}^+(\alpha_2(t)))$
$\beta_2$	$(0, \mathbf{n}_{S'_2}^-(\beta_2(t)))$	$(\beta_2(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_2}^-(\beta_2(t)))$
$\alpha_1 * \alpha_2$	$(\alpha_1(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_1}^+(\alpha_1(t)))$	$(\alpha_2(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_2}^+(\alpha_2(t)))$
$\beta_1 * \beta_2$	$(\beta_1(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_1}^-(\beta_1(t)))$	$(\beta_2(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_2}^-(\beta_2(t)))$
$\alpha_1 * \beta_2$	$(\alpha_1(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_1}^+(\alpha_1(t)))$	$(\beta_2(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_2}^-(\beta_2(t)))$
$\beta_1 * \alpha_2$	$(\beta_1(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_1}^-(\beta_1(t)))$	$(\alpha_2(t), \mathbf{n}_{S'_2}^+(\alpha_2(t)))$

From the above table, it is easy to check that  $\phi_1^\alpha$  and  $\phi_2^\alpha$  (*resp.*,  $\phi_1^\beta$  and  $\phi_2^\beta$ ) satisfy (1) and (2) of 2. It is also clear that  $\phi_i^\alpha$  and  $\gamma_i^\alpha$  (*resp.*,  $\phi_i^\beta$  and  $\gamma_i^\beta$ ) are either one-to-one or constant for  $i = 1, 2$ . Note that  $B_\rho(0) \cap S$ ,  $S'_1, S'_2$  are non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors, and  $B_\rho(0) \cap S'_i \subset B_\rho(0) \cap S$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Suppose the image of  $\alpha$  is contained in the image of  $\beta_1$ . Since  $B_\rho(0) \cap S'_1 \subset B_\rho(0) \cap S$ , it follows that  $\alpha_1$  and  $\beta_1$  have the same image. But this is impossible, since  $S'_1$  is non-degenerate. So the image of  $\alpha$  cannot be contained in the image of  $\beta_1$ . In the same way, we can see that the image of  $\alpha$  cannot be contained in the image of  $\beta_2$ , and the image of  $\beta$  cannot be contained in the images of  $\alpha_1$  or  $\alpha_2$ . Suppose the image of  $\alpha$  is contained in the image of  $\beta_1 * \beta_2$ . By Lemma 2.3,  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_1 * \beta_2] = \mathbf{v}[\beta_1]$  or  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_2]$ . With no loss of generality, suppose  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_1 * \beta_2] = \mathbf{v}[\beta_1] = (1, 0)$ . Clearly,  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha] = (1, 0)$ . Take non-zero points  $q_1, q_2, q$  in the images of  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta$  respectively such that  $q = q_1 + q_2$ . Note that these points can be taken arbitrarily close to 0. So there exists a small  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\{q_1 + u \cdot (0, -1) \mid 0 \leq u \leq \delta\} \subset S'_1$  and  $q_2 + \{q_1 + u \cdot (0, -1) \mid 0 \leq u \leq \delta\} = \{q + u \cdot (0, -1) \mid 0 \leq u \leq \delta\} \subset B_\rho(0) \cap S$ . But this contradicts the assumption that  $\alpha$  is the end curve of  $B_\rho(0) \cap S$ . So the image of  $\alpha$  cannot be contained in the image of  $\beta_1 * \beta_2$ . In the same way, we can see that the image of  $\beta$  cannot be contained in the image of  $\alpha_1 * \alpha_2$ . Now, from the above table, we can see that if one of  $O_{S_1}(\gamma_1^\alpha)$  and  $O_{S_2}(\gamma_2^\alpha)$  (*resp.*,  $O_{S_1}(\gamma_1^\beta)$  and  $O_{S_2}(\gamma_2^\beta)$ ) is  $-$  (*resp.*,  $+$ ), then the other is  $+$  (*resp.*,  $-$ ). This shows (4) of 2.

Suppose the image of  $\alpha$  is contained in  $\alpha_1 * \alpha_2$ . Then, for every  $t$ , we have either  $\mathbf{n}_{S_1}^+(\alpha_1(t)) = \mathbf{n}_{S_2}^+(\alpha_2(t))$  or  $\mathbf{n}_{S_1}^+(\alpha_1(t)) = -\mathbf{n}_{S_2}^+(\alpha_2(t))$ , since  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  are  $*$ -admissible to each other. Suppose the latter is true. Since  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are non-degenerate, we can take  $t_0$  such that, for every sufficiently small  $\delta > 0$ ,  $\alpha_1(t_0) - \delta \cdot \mathbf{n}_{S_1}^+(\alpha_1(t_0)) \in S_1$  and  $\alpha_2(t_0) - \delta \cdot \mathbf{n}_{S_2}^+(\alpha_2(t_0)) \in S_2$ . This implies  $\alpha(t_0) \pm \delta \cdot \mathbf{n}_S^+(\alpha(t_0)) \in S$ , which is a contradiction that  $\alpha \subset \partial S$ . So we should have  $\mathbf{n}_{S_1}^+(\alpha_1(t)) = \mathbf{n}_{S_2}^+(\alpha_2(t))$  for every  $t$ , and hence,  $\mathbf{n}_S^+(\alpha(t)) = \mathbf{n}_{S_1}^+(\alpha_1(t)) = \mathbf{n}_{S_2}^+(\alpha_2(t))$  for every  $t$ . We can show that (3) of 2 is true for the remaining cases in a similar way.

Now we show 3. Suppose the image of  $\alpha$  (*resp.*,  $\beta$ ) is not contained in one of the images of the curves  $\alpha_1, \beta_1, \alpha_2, \beta_2, \alpha_1 * \alpha_2, \beta_1 * \beta_2, \alpha_1 * \beta_2, \beta_1 * \alpha_2$ . Then by Lemma 6.7, the image of  $\alpha$  (*resp.*,  $\beta$ ) is contained in one of the images of  $\widehat{\alpha_1}, \widehat{\alpha_2}, \widehat{\beta_1}, \widehat{\beta_2}$ . We first show that the image of  $\alpha$  cannot be contained in the images of  $\widehat{\alpha_1}$  or  $\widehat{\alpha_2}$ , and the image of  $\beta$  cannot be contained in the images of  $\widehat{\beta_1}$  or  $\widehat{\beta_2}$ . Suppose the image of  $\alpha$  is contained in the image of  $\widehat{\alpha_1}$ . By Lemma 6.7, this means that  $\alpha_1, -\beta_2$  have the same image. With no loss of generality, we assume that  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_1] = (-1, 0)$ . Since  $r$  is small, there exists a function  $f : [-r', 0] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  whose graph is the image of  $\alpha_1$ . Note that  $|(-r', f(-r'))| = r$ . The graph of the function  $g : [0, r'] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $g(x) = f(x - r') - f(-r')$  is the image of  $\widehat{\alpha_1}$ . Since  $S'_1$  is non-degenerate, there exist  $\epsilon > 0, \delta > 0$  such that  $\{(-\epsilon, y) \mid f(-\epsilon) - \delta \leq y \leq f(-\epsilon)\} \subset S'_1$ . Since  $\alpha_1, -\beta_2$  have the same image, we have  $(r', -f(-r')) \in S'_2$ . Note that we can take  $|r' - \epsilon|$  and  $\delta$  as small as desired. So  $\{(-\epsilon + r', y) \mid g(-\epsilon + r') - \delta \leq y \leq g(-\epsilon + r')\} = (r', -f(-r')) + \{(-\epsilon, y) \mid f(-\epsilon) - \delta \leq y \leq f(-\epsilon)\} \subset B_\rho(0) \cap S$ . This means that  $\widehat{\alpha_1} \cap B_\rho(0)$  cannot be the end curve of  $B_\rho(0) \cap S$ , which is a contradiction to the assumption. Thus the image of  $\alpha$  cannot be contained in the image of  $\widehat{\alpha_1}$ . In the same way, we can also show that the image of  $\alpha$  cannot be contained in the image of  $\widehat{\alpha_2}$ , and the image of  $\beta$  cannot be contained in the images of  $\widehat{\beta_1}$  or  $\widehat{\beta_2}$ .

Suppose the image of  $\alpha$  is contained in the image of  $\widehat{\beta_1}$ . By Lemma 6.7,  $\beta_1, -\alpha_2$  have the same image. Suppose  $\sigma(\beta_1) = 0$ . Then it is easy to see that  $\widehat{\beta_1}, \alpha_2$  have the same image. So the image of  $\alpha$  is contained in the image of  $\alpha_2$ , which contradicts the assumption. Suppose  $\sigma(\beta_1) = +$ . Then it is easy to see that the image of  $\widehat{\beta_1}$  intersects  $\text{int}S'_2$ , since  $S'_2$  is non-degenerate,  $\alpha_2 = -\beta_1$ , and  $r$  is assumed small. So  $B_\rho(0) \cap \widehat{\beta_1}$  cannot be the end curve of  $B_\rho(0) \cap S$ , which is a contradiction. Thus we must have  $\sigma(\beta_1) = -$  and  $\sigma(\widehat{\beta_1}) = +$ . With no loss of generality, we can assume that there exists  $\tilde{r} > r$  such that  $T = B_\rho(0) \cap \{(B_{\tilde{r}}(0) \cap S_1) + (B_{\tilde{r}}(0) \cap S_2)\}$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center 0 and radius  $\rho$ , and  $\tilde{\alpha}, \widehat{\tilde{\beta_1}}$  have the same image, where  $\tilde{\alpha}$  is the end curve of  $T$  and  $\tilde{\beta_1}$  is the start curve of  $(B_{\tilde{r}}(0) \cap S_1)$ . Since  $\sigma(\widehat{\tilde{\beta_1}}) = +$ ,  $\beta_1 = B_{\tilde{r}}(0) \cap \tilde{\beta_1}$ , and  $r$  is small, it is easy to see that  $\alpha \setminus \{0\} \subset \text{int}T$ . Thus  $\alpha \setminus \{0\}$  is in the interior of  $S_1 + S_2$ . In the same way, we can show that  $\alpha \setminus \{0\} \subset \text{int}(S_1 + S_2)$  if  $\alpha, \widehat{\beta_2}$  have the same image, and  $\beta \setminus \{0\} \subset \text{int}(S_1 + S_2)$  if  $\beta, \widehat{\alpha_1}$  have the same image or  $\beta, \widehat{\alpha_2}$  have the same image. This shows 3.  $\square$

**6.4. Closedness of Minkowski Sum.** Using the results in Section 6.2, we now analyze the Minkowski sum from a more global point of view, *i.e.*, the Minkowski sum of general domains. It turns out that, for any Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ , the Minkowski sum of  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is also an  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain, and thus the set of all  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is closed under the Minkowski sum. Note that this is not true for an arbitrary curve class  $\mathcal{C}$  which is closed under restriction. See Figure 3 for an example.

First, we prove a lemma which will also be used later in Section 7:

**Lemma 6.9.** *Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be two  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains. Let  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$ . Then, for every point  $p \in \partial\Omega$  and for every  $r > 0$ , there exist a finite number of pairs  $(p_1^1, p_2^1), \dots, (p_1^n, p_2^n)$  in  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p)$ ,  $0 < r_1, \dots, r_n < r$ , such that, for every sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ , the following are satisfied:*

- (1)  $S_i^k = B_{r_k}(p_i^k) \cap \Omega_i$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p_i^k$  and radius  $r_k$  for every  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, \dots, n$ .
- (2)  $B_\rho(p) \cap (S_1^k + S_2^k)$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ .
- (3) The set  $B_\rho(p) \cap \Omega$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$ , and

$$B_\rho(p) \cap \Omega = \bigcup_{k=1}^n \{B_\rho(p) \cap (S_1^k + S_2^k)\}.$$

*Proof.* Suppose  $p \in \partial\Omega$  and  $r > 0$ . By Lemma 6.6, there exist finite pairs  $(p_1^1, p_2^1), \dots, (p_1^n, p_2^n)$  in  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p)$  and  $0 < r_1, \dots, r_n < r$  such that  $S_i^k = B_{r_k}(p_i^k) \cap \Omega_i$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors

with center  $p_i^k$  and radius  $r_k$  for  $i = 1, 2, k = 1, \dots, n$ , and  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p) \subset U$ , where  $U = \bigcup_{k=1}^n (B_{r_k}^o(p_1^k) \cap \Omega_1) \times (B_{r_k}^o(p_2^k) \cap \Omega_2)$ . Thus (1) is satisfied.

For  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , let  $S_i^k = \bigcup_{j=1}^{n_i^k} S_i^{k,j}$ , where  $S_i^{k,j}$ 's are mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p_i^k$  and radius  $r_k$ . Note that  $r_k$ 's can be taken to be arbitrarily small. So by Lemma 6.4, we can assume that  $S_1^{k,j}$  and  $S_2^{k,j'}$  are admissible to each other for every  $k = 1, \dots, n$  and  $1 \leq j \leq n_1^k, 1 \leq j' \leq n_2^k$ . By Theorem 6.1, the set  $B_\rho(p) \cap (S_1^{k,j} + S_2^{k,j'})$  is either  $B_\rho(p)$ , or a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$  for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ . So by Lemma 6.1 and Lemma 4.1 (2), the set  $B_\rho(p) \cap (S_1^k + S_2^k)$  is either  $B_\rho(p)$ , or a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$  for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ . It follows that  $B_\rho(p) \cap (S_1^k + S_2^k)$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$ , since  $p \in \partial\Omega$  and  $(S_1^k + S_2^k) \subset \Omega$ . Thus (2) is satisfied.

By applying Lemma 4.1 (2), we see that the set  $\bigcup_{k=1}^n \{B_\rho(p) \cap (S_1^k + S_2^k)\}$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$  for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ , since  $p \in \partial\Omega$  and  $\bigcup_{k=1}^n (S_1^k + S_2^k) \subset \Omega$ . Note that the set  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}((\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2) \setminus U)$  in  $\Omega$  is compact, and does not contain  $p$ , since  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p) \subset U$ . So, for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ , we have  $B_\rho(p) \cap M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}((\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2) \setminus U) = \emptyset$ . This implies that  $B_\rho(p) \cap \Omega = B_\rho(p) \cap M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}(\overline{U})$ . Thus (3) is satisfied, since  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}(\overline{U}) = \bigcup_{k=1}^n (S_1^k + S_2^k)$ .  $\square$

It is now easy to prove the following result:

**Theorem 6.3. (Closedness under the Minkowski Sum)**

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be two  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains. Then their Minkowski sum  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$  is an  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain.

*Proof.* First, note that  $\Omega$  is compact and connected, since it is the image of the compact and connected set  $\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2$  under the continuous Minkowski map  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}$ . By Lemma 6.9, there exist  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $r$  for every  $p \in \partial\Omega$ . Thus  $\Omega$  is an  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain by Lemma 4.2.  $\square$

## 7. MINKOWSKI SUM OF SEMI-CONVEX DOMAINS

Let us first define the *semi-convexity*:

**Definition 7.1. (Semi-Convex Domain)**

A regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domain  $\Omega$  is called *semi-convex*, if  $\Theta(\Omega) \geq -\pi$ .

*Remark 7.1.* In fact, if  $\Theta(\Omega) > -2\pi$  for a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domain  $\Omega$ , then  $\Omega$  must be simply-connected. So a semi-convex domain is automatically simply-connected. It is also easy to see that a regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domain  $\Omega$  is *convex*, if and only if  $\Theta(\Omega) = 0$ .

The domains in Figures 11 and 12 are examples of the regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domains which are semi-convex and not semi-convex respectively.

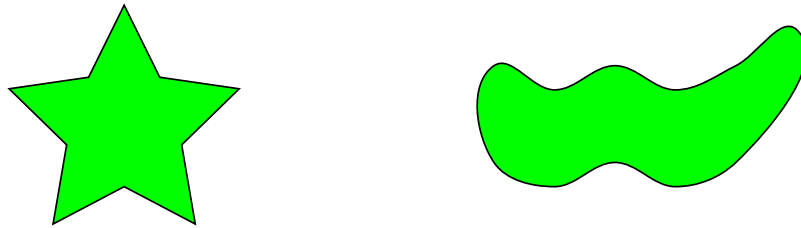


FIGURE 11. Examples of Semi-convex Domains

In this section, we will show that the Minkowski sum of two semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is homeomorphic to the unit disk in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  for any Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ . This answers Problem 1 posed in Section 1 within the category of the  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be two semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains. Let  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$  be their Minkowski sum. The proof is divided in two major steps: First, we show that  $\Omega$  is regular in Section 7.1, and then we show that  $\Omega$  is simply-connected in Section 7.2. The result will finally follow, since a domain is homeomorphic to the unit disk if and only if it is regular and simply-connected.

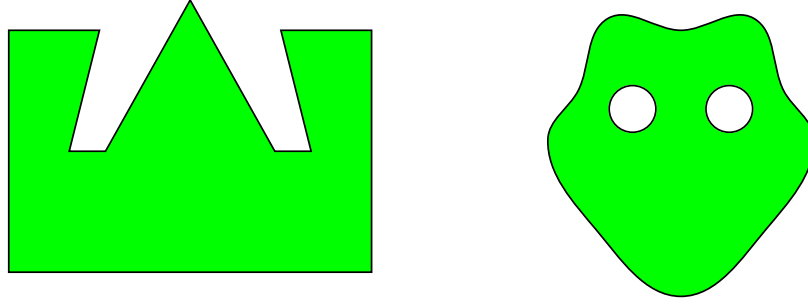


FIGURE 12. Examples of Regular Domains which are not Semi-convex

### 7.1. Regularity.

**Lemma 7.1.** *Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $\Omega_1, \Omega_2$  be regular  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains. Let  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$ , and let  $p \in \partial\Omega$ . Suppose  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega = \bigcup_{k=1}^n S^k$ , where  $S^k$ 's are mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ . Then there exist  $\rho > 0$  and  $(p_1^1, p_2^1), \dots, (p_1^n, p_2^n)$  in  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p)$  such that  $S_i^k = B_\rho(p_i^k) \cap \Omega_i$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p_i^k$  and radius  $\rho$ , and  $S_i^k - p_i^k \subset (S_1^k + S_2^k) - p \subset S^k - p$  for each  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, \dots, n$ .*

*Proof.* By Lemma 6.9, there exist  $r_1, \dots, r_m > 0$ ,  $(q_1^1, q_2^1), \dots, (q_1^m, q_2^m)$  in  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p)$ , and  $0 < \rho < \min\{r/2, r_1, \dots, r_m\}$ , such that  $T_i^j = B_{r_j}(q_i^j) \cap \Omega_i$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $q_i^j$  and radius  $r_j$  for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $j = 1, \dots, m$ ,  $B_{2\rho}(p) \cap (T_1^j + T_2^j)$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $2\rho$  for  $j = 1, \dots, m$ , and  $B_{2\rho}(p) \cap \Omega = \bigcup_{j=1}^m B_{2\rho}(p) \cap (T_1^j + T_2^j)$ . Since  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  are regular, each  $T_i^j$  should be a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector. Since  $r_j$ 's can be taken arbitrarily small, we can assume that  $T_1^j$  and  $T_2^j$  are admissible to each other for  $j = 1, \dots, m$ . So by Theorem 6.2,  $B_{2\rho}(p) \cap (T_1^j + T_2^j)$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $2\rho$  for  $j = 1, \dots, m$ . Note that  $B_{2\rho}(p) \cap S^k$ 's are mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $2\rho$ , and  $B_{2\rho}(p) \cap \Omega = \bigcup_{k=1}^n B_{2\rho}(p) \cap S^k$ . So it is easy to see that there exists  $1 \leq j_k \leq m$  such that  $B_{2\rho}(p) \cap (T_1^{j_k} + T_2^{j_k}) \subset B_{2\rho}(p) \cap S^k$  for each  $k = 1, \dots, n$ . Let  $p_i^k = q_i^{j_k}$ , and let  $S_i^k = B_\rho(p_i^k) \cap \Omega_i = B_\rho(q_i^{j_k}) \cap T_i^{j_k}$  for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, \dots, n$ . Then we have  $S_1^k + S_2^k = (B_\rho(q_1^{j_k}) \cap T_1^{j_k}) + (B_\rho(q_2^{j_k}) \cap T_2^{j_k}) \subset B_{2\rho}(p) \cap (T_1^{j_k} + T_2^{j_k}) \subset B_{2\rho}(p) \cap S^k \subset S^k$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Clearly,  $S_i^k - p_i^k \subset (S_1^k + S_2^k) - p$  for  $i = 1, 2, k = 1, \dots, n$ . Thus the proof is complete.  $\square$

**Lemma 7.2.** *Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class. Let  $\gamma_i : [0, a_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  be two  $\mathcal{M}$ -curves such that  $\gamma_1(0) = \gamma_2(0) = 0$ , and their images  $S_1 = \gamma_1([0, a_1])$ ,  $S_2 = \gamma_2([0, a_2])$  are degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center 0 and radius  $r > 0$ . Suppose  $S_1, S_2$  are admissible to each other, and  $S_1 \neq -S_2$ . Take  $0 < r' \leq r$  such that either  $B_{r'}(0) \cap S_1 = B_{r'}(0) \cap S_2$ , or  $B_{r'}(0) \cap S_1, B_{r'}(0) \cap S_2$  do not meet except at 0. Let  $S$  be the  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center 0 and radius  $r'$ , which is uniquely determined by the following conditions:*

- (1)  $S$  is bounded by  $B_{r'}(0) \cap S_1, B_{r'}(0) \cap S_2$  and an arc in  $\partial B_{r'}(0)$ .
- (2)  $S$  is a sharp sector, if  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] \neq -\mathbf{v}[\gamma_2]$ .
- (3) When  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] = -\mathbf{v}[\gamma_2]$ , the start curve of  $S$  is  $B_{r'}(0) \cap S_1$  (resp.,  $B_{r'}(0) \cap S_2$ ), and the end curve of  $S$  is  $B_{r'}(0) \cap S_2$  (resp.,  $B_{r'}(0) \cap S_1$ ), if  $\gamma_1 \triangleleft \gamma_2$  (resp.,  $\gamma_1 \triangleright \gamma_2$ ).

Then  $B_\rho(0) \cap S \subset S_1 + S_2$  for every sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ .

*Proof.* With no loss of generality, assume  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_1] = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ ,  $\mathbf{v}[\gamma_2] = (\cos(\pi - \theta), \sin(\pi - \theta))$  for some  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2$ . In case  $\theta = 0$ , we can also assume with no loss of generality that  $\sigma(\gamma_1) = +$ ,  $\sigma(\gamma_2) = 0$  or  $+$ , and  $\gamma_1 \triangleright \gamma_2$ . Then we can see easily that  $(0, \rho) \in S_1 + S_2$  for every sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ , when  $\theta \neq \pi/2$ . Note that  $(0, \rho) \in \text{int} S$  for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ , when  $\theta \neq \pi/2$ . In case  $\theta = \pi/2$ , it is also easy to see that there exists a point in  $B_\rho(0) \cap \text{int} S$  (in  $B_\rho(0) \cap S$  if  $S$  has no interior) which is contained in  $S_1 + S_2$ , for every sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ . By Lemma 6.7 and Theorem 6.2 (3), there exists  $0 < r'' < r'$  and  $\rho > 0$  such that the set  $B_\rho(0) \cap \partial((B_{r''}(0) \cap S_1) + (B_{r''}(0) \cap S_2))$  is contained in the union of the images of  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  and  $\gamma_1 * \gamma_2$  (if defined). From these, it is easy to see that  $B_\rho(0) \cap S \subset S_1 + S_2$  for every sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 7.1. (Regularity of Minkowski Sum of Semi-Convex Domains)**

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains. Then their Minkowski sum  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$  is a regular  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain.

*Proof.* By Theorem 6.3, we know that  $\Omega$  is an  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain. Suppose  $\Omega$  is not regular. Then there exists a point  $p \in \partial\Omega$  and  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega$  is a union of at least two mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ . Let  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega = \bigcup_{k=1}^n S^k$ , where  $S^k$ 's are mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ . By the assumption, we have  $n \geq 2$ . By Lemma 7.1, there exist  $(p_1^1, p_2^1), (p_1^2, p_2^2)$  in  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p)$  and  $\rho > 0$  such that, for each  $k = 1, 2$  and  $i = 1, 2$ ,  $S_i^k = B_\rho(p_i^k) \cap \Omega_i$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p_i^k$  and radius  $\rho$ , and  $S_i^k - p_i^k \subset (S_1^k + S_2^k) - p \subset S^k - p$ . Let  $\tilde{\Omega}_2 = -\Omega_2 + p$ . Then by Lemma 6.3 (3),  $\Omega_1$  and  $\tilde{\Omega}_2$  are in contact position to each other, and meet at  $p_1^1$  and  $p_1^2$ . Since  $S^1$  and  $S^2$  are non-overlapping, it is easy to see that  $p_1^1 \neq p_1^2$ . For  $i = 1, 2$ , let  $\phi_i : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v \Omega_i$ ,  $\phi_i(t) = (\gamma_i(t), \mathbf{n}_i(t))$  be a one-to-one continuous map such that  $\phi_1(0) = (p_1^1, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_1}^+(p_1^1))$ ,  $\phi_1(1) = (p_1^2, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_1}^-(p_1^2))$ ,  $\phi_2(0) = (p_2^2, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_2}^+(p_2^2))$ ,  $\phi_2(1) = (p_2^1, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_2}^-(p_2^1))$ . By interchanging  $(p_1^1, p_2^1)$  and  $(p_1^2, p_2^2)$  if necessary, we can assume that  $O_{\Omega_1}(\phi_1) = O_{\Omega_2}(\phi_2) = +$ , and  $(\gamma_1([0, 1]) \setminus \{p_1^1, p_1^2\}) \cap \bar{U} = \emptyset$ , where  $U$  is the unbounded component of  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus (\Omega_1 \cup \tilde{\Omega}_2)$ . Define  $\tilde{\phi}_2 : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v \tilde{\Omega}_2$ ,  $\tilde{\phi}_2(t) = (\tilde{\gamma}_2(t), \tilde{\mathbf{n}}_2(t))$  by  $\tilde{\phi}_2(t) = (-\gamma_2(t) + p, -\mathbf{n}_2(t))$  for  $t \in [0, 1]$ . Then it is easy to see that  $(\tilde{\gamma}_2([0, 1]) \setminus \{p_1^1, p_1^2\}) \cap \bar{U} = \emptyset$ . Since  $\Omega_1$  and  $\tilde{\Omega}_2$  are semi-convex, we have  $-\pi \leq \Theta(\phi_1), \Theta(\tilde{\phi}_2) \leq \pi$  by Lemma 5.4 (2). So we have  $-\pi \leq \Theta(\phi_i) \leq \pi$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , since  $\Theta(\tilde{\phi}_2) = \Theta(\phi_2)$  by Lemma 5.3.

We will show that, in fact,  $-\pi < \Theta(\phi_i) < \pi$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Suppose  $\Theta(\phi_1) = -\pi$ . With no loss of generality, we assume  $\mathbf{n}_1(0) = (-1, 0)$ . Let  $\alpha_i^k$  and  $\beta_i^k$  be the end curve and the start curve of the  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector  $S_i^k$  respectively for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, 2$ . Then we have  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_1^1] = \mathbf{v}[\beta_1^2] = (0, -1)$ . Suppose  $\sigma(\alpha_1^1) = +$ . Then it is easy to see that there exists  $t_0 \in (0, 1)$  such that  $\Theta(\phi_1|_{[0, t_0]}) > 0$ . So by Lemma 5.1, we have  $\Theta(\phi_1|_{[t_0, 1]}) = \Theta(\phi_1) - \Theta(\phi_1|_{[0, t_0]}) < -\pi$ , which is impossible since  $\Omega_1$  is semi-convex. Thus we have  $\sigma(\alpha_1^1) = 0$  or  $-$ . In the same way, we can show that  $\sigma(\beta_1^2) = 0$  or  $+$ . Since  $S_1^1 - p_1^1 \subset S^1 - p$ ,  $S_1^2 - p_1^2 \subset S^2 - p$ , and  $S^1 - p$  and  $S^2 - p$  are non-overlapping, it follows that  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_1^1] = \mathbf{v}[\alpha_1^2] = \mathbf{v}[\beta^1] = \mathbf{v}[\alpha^2] = (0, -1)$ , and either  $\sigma(\beta^1) = -$  or  $\sigma(\alpha^2) = +$ , where  $\alpha^k$  and  $\beta^k$  are the end curve and the start curve of  $S^k$  for  $k = 1, 2$ . Let  $\alpha_1$  be the non-negative angle of the counter-clockwise rotation from  $-\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_2}^-(p_1^1) = -\mathbf{v}[\beta_2^1]$  to  $\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_1}^+(p_1^1) = \mathbf{v}[\alpha_1^1]$ , and let  $\alpha_2$  be the non-negative angle of the counter-clockwise rotation from  $-\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_1}^-(p_2^1) = \mathbf{v}[\beta_1^2]$  to  $\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_2}^+(p_2^2) = -\mathbf{v}[\alpha_2^2]$ . Suppose  $\alpha_1 < \pi$ . Then by Lemma 7.2, the Minkowski sum of  $\beta_1^1$  and  $\beta_2^1$ , which is contained in  $S^1$ , must intersect  $S^2$ . But this is impossible, since  $S^1$  and  $S^2$  are non-overlapping. So  $\alpha_1 \geq \pi$ . In the same way, we can also show  $\alpha_2 \geq \pi$ . By Lemma 5.4 (1), we have  $\Theta(\phi_1) + \Theta(\phi_2) + \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 0$ , and hence  $\Theta(\phi_1) + \Theta(\phi_2) + \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 0$ . Since  $-\pi \leq \Theta(\phi_2) \leq \pi$  and  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \geq 2\pi$ , we must have  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \pi$  and  $\Theta(\phi_2) = -\pi$ . So  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_2^1] = \mathbf{v}[\alpha_2^2] = (0, -1)$ . Remember that either  $\sigma(\beta^1) = -$  or  $\sigma(\alpha^2) = +$ . Suppose  $\sigma(\beta^1) = -$ . Then  $\sigma(\beta_2^1)$  should also be  $-$ . So there exists  $t_0 \in (0, 1)$  such that  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_0, 1]}) > 0$ . By Lemma 5.1, we have  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[0, t_0]}) = \Theta(\phi_2) - \Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_0, 1]}) < -\pi$ , which is impossible since  $\Omega_2$  is semi-convex. In the same way, we get a contradiction if  $\sigma(\alpha^2) = -$ . Thus we conclude that  $\Theta(\phi_1) \neq -\pi$ . By using the symmetric argument, we also have  $\Theta(\phi_2) \neq -\pi$ . It follows from Lemma 5.4 (1) that  $\Theta(\phi_i) \neq \pi$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Thus we have  $-\pi < \Theta(\phi_i) < \pi$  for  $i = 1, 2$ .

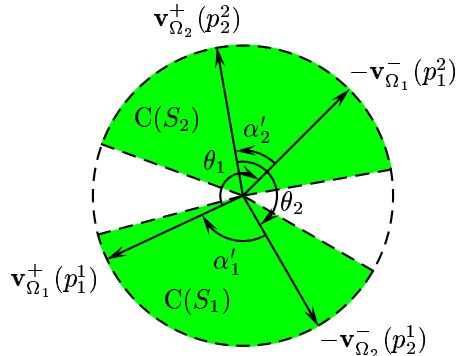


FIGURE 13.  $C(S_1)$  and  $C(S_2)$



Now let  $\theta_1 (\leq 0)$  be the angle of the clockwise rotation from  $\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_1}^+(p_1^1)$  to  $-\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_1}^-(p_1^2)$ , and  $\theta_2 (\leq 0)$  be the angle of the clockwise rotation from  $\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_2}^+(p_2^2)$  to  $-\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_2}^-(p_2^1)$ . Note that  $\theta_i = \Theta(\phi_i) - \pi + 2\pi n_i$  for some  $n_i \in \mathbb{Z}$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Since  $S^1$  and  $S^2$  are non-overlapping, we have  $-2\pi \leq \theta_i \leq 0$  (See Figure 13). So it follows that  $n_i = 0$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , since  $-\pi < \Theta(\phi_i) < \pi$ . Thus we have  $\theta_i = \Theta(\phi_i) - \pi$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Let  $\alpha'_1$  be the angle of the rotation in  $C(S^1)$  from  $-\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_2}^-(p_2^1)$  to  $\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_1}^+(p_1^1)$ , and  $\alpha'_2$  be the angle of the rotation in  $C(S^2)$  from  $-\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_1}^-(p_1^2)$  to  $\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_2}^+(p_2^2)$ . We understand  $\alpha'_i$  to be positive if the rotation is counter-clockwise, and negative if the rotation is clockwise. Note that  $-\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_2}^-(p_2^1) = \mathbf{v}_{\Omega_2}^+(p_2^2)$ , and  $-\mathbf{v}_{\Omega_1}^-(p_1^2) = \mathbf{v}_{\Omega_1}^+(p_1^1)$ . So we can easily see that  $\alpha'_i = \alpha_i - \pi$  for  $i = 1, 2$  by using Lemma 7.2.

From the definitions, it is obvious that  $\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \alpha'_1 + \alpha'_2 = -2\pi$  (See Figure 13). So from the above relations between  $\theta_i$ 's and  $\Theta(\phi_i)$ 's, and  $\alpha'_i$ 's and  $\alpha_i$ 's, it follows that  $\Theta(\phi_1) + \Theta(\phi_2) + \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 2\pi$ , which is a contradiction to Lemma 5.4 (1). Thus we conclude that  $\Omega$  is regular.  $\square$

**7.2. Simple-connectedness.** In this section, we show that the Minkowski sum of two semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is simply-connected for any Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $\Omega$  be a simply-connected regular  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain. For each  $q \in \Omega$ , we fix a homotopy  $H_{\Omega;q} : \Omega \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega$  such that  $H_{\Omega;q}(p, 0) = p$  and  $H_{\Omega;q}(p, 1) = q$  for every  $p \in \Omega$ . For each  $q \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , we define  $I_q : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  by  $I_q(p) = -p + q$  for  $p \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Note that  $I_q \circ I_q$  is the identity map.

**Lemma 7.3.** *Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be two semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains with  $0 \in \Omega_1, \Omega_2$ . Let  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$ , and let  $p \in \partial\Omega$ . Then there exist one-to-one continuous maps  $\phi^+, \phi^- : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega$ ,  $\phi^\pm(t) = (\gamma^\pm(t), \mathbf{n}^\pm(t))$ , and continuous maps  $\phi_i^+, \phi_i^- : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega_i$ ,  $\phi_i^\pm(t) = (\gamma_i^\pm(t), \mathbf{n}_i^\pm(t))$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , which satisfy the following conditions:*

- (1)  $\phi^\pm(0) = (p, \mathbf{n}_\Omega^\pm(p))$ ,  $O_\Omega(\phi^\pm) = \pm$ , and  $\gamma^\pm(t)$  is a flat point for every  $t \in (0, 1]$ .
- (2) Each of  $\phi_i^\pm$ 's and  $\gamma_i^\pm$ 's is either one-to-one or constant, and, if one of  $O_{\Omega_1}(\gamma_1^\pm)$  and  $O_{\Omega_2}(\gamma_2^\pm)$  is  $\mp$ , then the other is  $\pm$ .
- (3)  $\gamma^\pm(t) = \gamma_1^\pm(t) + \gamma_2^\pm(t)$ , and  $\mathbf{n}^\pm(t) = \mathbf{n}_1^\pm(t) = \mathbf{n}_2^\pm(t)$  for  $t \in [0, 1]$ .
- (4)  $\Theta(\phi^\pm) = \Theta(\phi_1^\pm) = \Theta(\phi_2^\pm)$ , and, for  $i = 1, 2$ ,  $\gamma_i^\pm$  is homotopic to  $\gamma^\pm$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_i$  via the homotopy  $H_i^\pm : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_i$ , defined by

$$\begin{aligned} H_1^\pm(t, s) &= I_{\gamma^\pm(t)}(H_{\Omega_2;0}(\gamma_2^\pm(t), s)), \\ H_2^\pm(t, s) &= I_{\gamma^\pm(t)}(H_{\Omega_1;0}(\gamma_1^\pm(t), s)), \end{aligned}$$

for  $(t, s) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ .

*Proof.* By Theorem 7.1, we know that  $\Omega$  is a regular  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain. Let  $p \in \partial\Omega$ . By Lemma 4.3, there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B_r(p) \cap \Omega$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $r$ . By Lemma 6.9, there exist  $0 < r_1, \dots, r_n < r$ ,  $0 < \rho < r$  and  $(p_1^1, p_2^1), \dots, (p_1^n, p_2^n)$  in  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p)$ , such that  $S_i^k = B_{r_k}(p_i^k) \cap \Omega_i$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping  $\mathcal{M}$ -sectors with center  $p_i^k$  and radius  $r_k$  for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , and  $S^k = B_\rho(p) \cap (S_1^k + S_2^k)$  is a finite union of mutually non-overlapping sectors with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$ , and  $S = B_\rho(p) \cap \Omega = \bigcup_{k=1}^n S^k$ . Since  $r$  can be taken arbitrarily small and  $\Omega_1, \Omega_2$  are regular, we can assume that  $B_{r_k}(p_i^k) \cap \Omega_i$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p_i^k$  and radius  $r_k$  for every  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, \dots, n$ . By Theorem 6.2, we can also assume  $S^k$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , since  $r_k$ 's can be taken arbitrarily small. Note that  $S$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $\rho$ . Let  $\gamma^+, \gamma^- : [0, 1] \rightarrow S$  be the end curve and the start curve of  $S$  respectively. Since  $S = \bigcup S^k$ , there exist  $1 \leq k^+, k^- \leq n$  such that  $\gamma^+$  and  $\gamma^-$  are the end curve of  $S^{k^+}$  and the start curve of  $S^{k^-}$  respectively. Since  $\gamma^+$  and  $\gamma^-$  are in the boundary of  $\Omega$ , they should be in the boundary of  $S_1^{k^+} + S_2^{k^+}$  and  $S_1^{k^-} + S_2^{k^-}$  respectively. So by Theorem 6.2, there exist  $0 < \epsilon < 1$ , and continuous maps  $\phi_i^+ : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow \partial^v S_i^{k^+}$ ,  $\phi_i^+(t) = (\gamma_i^+(t), \mathbf{n}_i^+(t))$  and  $\phi_i^- : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow \partial^v S_i^{k^-}$ ,  $\phi_i^-(t) = (\gamma_i^-(t), \mathbf{n}_i^-(t))$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , such that  $\phi_i^\pm(0) = p_i^\pm$  for  $i = 1, 2$ ,  $\gamma^\pm(t) = \gamma_1^\pm(t) + \gamma_2^\pm(t)$  and  $\mathbf{n}_{S^{k^\pm}}^\pm(\gamma^\pm(t)) = \mathbf{n}_1^\pm(t) = \mathbf{n}_2^\pm(t)$  for  $t \in [0, \epsilon]$ , each  $\phi_i^\pm$  and  $\gamma_i^\pm$  are either one-to-one or constant, and, if one of  $O_{S_1^{k^\pm}}(\gamma_1^\pm)$  and  $O_{S_2^{k^\pm}}(\gamma_2^\pm)$  is  $\mp$ , then the other is  $\pm$ . Define  $\phi^+, \phi^- : [0, \epsilon] \rightarrow \partial^v S$ ,  $\phi^\pm(t) = (\gamma^\pm(t), \mathbf{n}^\pm(t))$  by  $\phi^\pm(t) = (\gamma^\pm(t), \mathbf{n}_{S^{k^\pm}}^\pm(\gamma^\pm(t)))$  for  $t \in [0, \epsilon]$ . Note that  $\phi_1^\pm, \phi_2^\pm$  and  $\phi^\pm$  are in  $\partial^v\Omega_1, \partial^v\Omega_2$  and  $\partial^v\Omega$  respectively. Thus, by reparametrizing them on the interval  $[0, 1]$ , (1), (2) and (3) are checked easily.

Now we show (4). First, it is easy to see that  $\Theta(\phi^\pm) = \Theta(\phi_1^\pm) = \Theta(\phi_2^\pm)$ , since  $\mathbf{n}^\pm(t) = \mathbf{n}_1^\pm(t) = \mathbf{n}_2^\pm(t)$  for every  $t \in [0, 1]$ . Note that, for  $i = 1, 2$ ,  $H_i^\pm(t, 0) = \gamma_i^\pm(t)$ , and  $H_i^\pm(t, 1) = \gamma^\pm(t)$  for every  $t \in [0, 1]$ . By the definition of  $H_{\Omega_i;0}$ 's, we have  $H_{\Omega_2;0}(\gamma_2^\pm(t), s) \in \Omega_2$  and  $H_{\Omega_1;0}(\gamma_1^\pm(t), s) \in \Omega_1$  for every  $t \in [0, 1]$  and  $s \in [0, 1]$ . So  $H_1^\pm(t, s) \in -\Omega_2 + \gamma^\pm(t)$  and  $H_2^\pm(t, s) \in -\Omega_1 + \gamma^\pm(t)$  for every  $t \in [0, 1]$  and  $s \in [0, 1]$ . By

Lemma 6.3 (3),  $\Omega_1$  and  $-\Omega_2 + \gamma^\pm(t)$  are in contact position to each other, and  $\Omega_2$  and  $-\Omega_1 + \gamma^\pm(t)$  are in contact position to each other for every  $t \in [0, 1]$ . So  $-\Omega_2 + \gamma^\pm(t) \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_1$  and  $-\Omega_1 + \gamma^\pm(t) \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_2$  for every  $t \in [0, 1]$ . Thus  $H_1^\pm(t, s) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_1$  and  $H_2^\pm(t, s) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_2$  for every  $t \in [0, 1]$  and  $s \in [0, 1]$ . This shows (4), and the proof is complete.  $\square$

Let us introduce the following useful notations: Let  $F_1 : [a_1, b_1] \times [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $F_2 : [a_2, b_2] \times [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be two homotopies such that  $F_1(b_1, s) = F_2(a_2, s)$  for every  $s \in [c, d]$ . Then we define  $F_1 \cdot F_2 : [a_1, b_1 + b_2 - a_2] \times [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$(F_1 \cdot F_2)(t, s) = \begin{cases} F_1(t, s), & \text{if } (t, s) \in [a_1, b_1] \times [c, d], \\ F_2(t - b_1 + a_2, s), & \text{if } (t, s) \in [b_1, b_1 + b_2 - a_2] \times [c, d]. \end{cases}$$

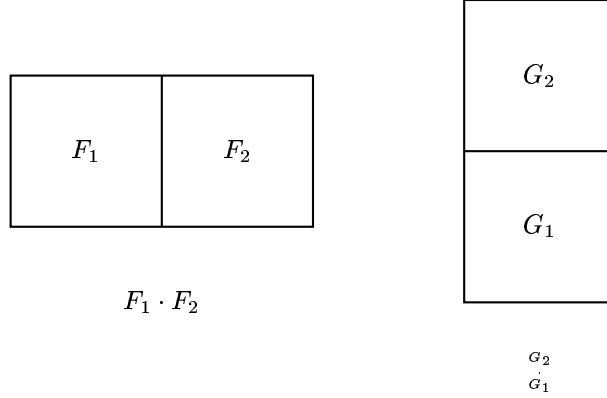


FIGURE 14. The Homotopies  $F_1 \cdot F_2$  and  $\begin{smallmatrix} G_2 \\ G_1 \end{smallmatrix}$

Let  $G_1 : [a, b] \times [c_1, d_1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $G_2 : [a, b] \times [c_2, d_2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be two homotopies such that  $G_1(t, d_1) = G_2(t, c_2)$  for every  $t \in [a, b]$ . Then we define  $\begin{smallmatrix} G_2 \\ G_1 \end{smallmatrix} : [a, b] \times [c_1, d_1 + d_2 - c_2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$\begin{pmatrix} G_2 \\ G_1 \end{pmatrix} (t, s) = \begin{cases} G_1(t, s), & \text{if } (t, s) \in [a, b] \times [c_1, d_1], \\ G_2(t, s - d_1 + c_2), & \text{if } (t, s) \in [a, b] \times [d_1, d_1 + d_2 - c_2]. \end{cases}$$

It is clear that  $F_1 \cdot F_2$  and  $\begin{smallmatrix} G_2 \\ G_1 \end{smallmatrix}$  are well-defined and continuous. See Figure 14.

Let  $F_{ij} : [a_i, b_i] \times [c_j, d_j] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be a homotopy for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $j = 1, 2$ . Suppose that  $F_{1j}(b_1, s) = F_{2j}(a_2, s)$  for every  $s \in [c_j, d_j]$  and  $j = 1, 2$ , and  $F_{i1}(t, d_1) = F_{i2}(t, c_2)$  for every  $t \in [a_i, b_i]$  and  $i = 1, 2$ . Then we define  $\begin{smallmatrix} F_{12} & \cdot & F_{22} \\ F_{11} & \cdot & F_{21} \end{smallmatrix} : [a_1, b_1 + b_2 - a_2] \times [c_1, d_1 + d_2 - c_2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$\begin{smallmatrix} F_{12} & \cdot & F_{22} \\ F_{11} & \cdot & F_{21} \end{smallmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} F_{12} \\ F_{11} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} F_{22} \\ F_{21} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{smallmatrix} (F_{12} \cdot F_{22}) \\ (F_{11} \cdot F_{21}) \end{smallmatrix}.$$

See Figure 15.

For any  $m, n \geq 1$ , we define in an obvious way the appropriate homotopy, when given the homotopies  $F_{ij}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, n$  with the continuity conditions on their adjacent boundaries.

Now, let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains with  $0 \in \Omega_1, \Omega_2$ . Let  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$ . Suppose  $\phi^k : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v \Omega$ ,  $\phi^k(t) = (\gamma^k(t), \mathbf{n}^k(t))$  and  $\phi_i^k : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v \Omega_i$ ,  $\phi_i^k(t) = (\gamma_i^k(t), \mathbf{n}_i^k(t))$  are continuous maps for  $k = 1, 2$  and  $i = 1, 2$ , which satisfy the following conditions:

- (1)  $\gamma^k$  is one-to-one and  $O_\Omega(\gamma^k) = +$  for  $k = 1, 2$ , and  $\gamma^1(1) = \gamma^2(0)$ .
- (2) Each of  $\phi_i^k$ 's and  $\gamma_i^k$ 's is either one-to-one or constant, and, if one of  $O_{\Omega_1}(\gamma_1^k)$  and  $O_{\Omega_2}(\gamma_2^k)$  is  $-$ , then the other is  $+$  for  $k = 1, 2$ .
- (3) For  $k = 1, 2$ ,  $\gamma^k(t) = \gamma_1^k(t) + \gamma_2^k(t)$ , and  $\mathbf{n}^k(t) = \mathbf{n}_1^k(t) = \mathbf{n}_2^k(t)$  for every  $t \in [0, 1]$ .

$F_{12}$	$F_{22}$
$F_{11}$	$F_{21}$

FIGURE 15. The Homotopy  $\begin{smallmatrix} F_{12} & \cdot & F_{22} \\ F_{11} & \cdot & F_{21} \end{smallmatrix}$ 

(4)  $\Theta(\phi^k) = \Theta(\phi_1^k) = \Theta(\phi_2^k)$  for  $k = 1, 2$ , and  $\gamma_i^k$  is homotopic to  $\gamma^k$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_i$  via the homotopy  $H_i^k : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, 2$ , where

$$\begin{aligned} H_1^k(t, s) &= I_{\gamma^k(t)}(H_{\Omega_2;0}(\gamma_2^k(t), s)), \\ H_2^k(t, s) &= I_{\gamma^k(t)}(H_{\Omega_1;0}(\gamma_1^k(t), s)), \end{aligned}$$

for  $(t, s) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  and  $k = 1, 2$ .

Let  $p = \gamma^1(1) = \gamma^2(0)$ . From the assumptions on  $\phi^k$ 's, it is obvious that  $\phi^1(1) = (p, \mathbf{n}_\Omega^-(p))$  and  $\phi^2(0) = (p, \mathbf{n}_\Omega^+(p))$ . Let  $\psi : [0, 1] \rightarrow p \times \text{NC}_\Omega(p) \subset \partial^v\Omega$ ,  $\psi(t) = (\eta(t), \mathbf{m}(t))$  be a continuous map, which is either one-to-one or constant and  $\mathbf{m}(0) = \mathbf{n}_\Omega^-(p)$ ,  $\mathbf{m}(1) = \mathbf{n}_\Omega^+(p)$ . Note that  $\psi(0) = \phi^1(1)$ ,  $\psi(1) = \phi^2(0)$ , and  $\eta(t) = p$  for  $t \in [0, 1]$ . Note also that  $\psi$ ,  $\mathbf{m}$  are one-to-one if  $p$  is a corner point, and constant if  $p$  is a flat point.

Let  $p_i^1 = \gamma_i^1(1)$  and  $p_i^2 = \gamma_i^2(0)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Note that  $p = p_1^1 + p_2^1 = p_1^2 + p_2^2$ , i.e.,  $(p_1^1, p_2^1)$  and  $(p_1^2, p_2^2)$  are in  $M_{\Omega_1, \Omega_2}^{-1}(p)$ . For  $i = 1, 2$ , let  $\psi_i : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega_i$ ,  $\psi_i(t) = (\eta_i(t), \mathbf{m}_i(t))$  be a continuous map which is either one-to-one or constant, and  $\psi_i(0) = (p_i^1, \mathbf{n}_i^1(1)) = \phi_i^1(1)$ ,  $\psi_i(1) = (p_i^2, \mathbf{n}_i^2(0)) = \phi_i^2(0)$ . Let  $\tilde{\Omega}_i = -\Omega_i + p$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Note that  $\Omega_1$  and  $\tilde{\Omega}_2$  are in contact position to each other, and  $p_1^1, p_1^2 \in \Omega_1 \cap \tilde{\Omega}_2$ . Also,  $\Omega_2$  and  $\tilde{\Omega}_1$  are in contact position to each other and  $p_2^1, p_2^2 \in \Omega_2 \cap \tilde{\Omega}_1$ . We assume that  $(\eta_i([0, 1]) \setminus \{p_i^1, p_i^2\}) \cap \bar{U}_i = \emptyset$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , where  $U_1$  is the unbounded component of the set  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus (\Omega_1 \cup \tilde{\Omega}_2)$ , and  $U_2$  is the unbounded component of the set  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus (\Omega_2 \cup \tilde{\Omega}_1)$ .

Note that  $p_1^1 = p_1^2$  if and only if  $p_2^1 = p_2^2$ . Suppose first  $p_1^1 = p_1^2$ . Then, clearly  $\eta_1, \eta_2$  are constant, and  $\psi_1, \psi_2$  are either one-to-one or constant. Let  $p_1 = p_1^1 = p_1^2$  and  $p_2 = p_2^1 = p_2^2$ . Take  $r > 0$  such that  $S_i = B_r(p_i) \cap \Omega_i$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p_i$  and radius  $r$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , and  $S = B_{2r}(p) \cap \Omega$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $2r$ . We can assume that  $S_1, S_2$  are admissible to each other by Lemma 6.4. Note that  $S_i - p_i \subset (S_1 + S_2) - p \subset S - p$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Since  $\mathbf{m}(0) = \mathbf{m}_1(0) = \mathbf{m}_2(0)$  and  $\mathbf{m}(1) = \mathbf{m}_1(1) = \mathbf{m}_2(1)$ , we have  $\Theta(\psi_i) = \Theta(\psi) + 2n_i\pi$  for some  $n_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ , for  $i = 1, 2$ . Note that  $-\pi \leq \Theta(\psi), \Theta(\psi_1), \Theta(\psi_2) \leq \pi$ , since  $\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{m}_1, \mathbf{m}_2$  rotate in  $\text{NC}_\Omega(p), \text{NC}_{\Omega_1}(p_1), \text{NC}_{\Omega_2}(p_2)$  respectively. So, if  $-\pi < \Theta(\psi) < \pi$ , we get  $\Theta(\psi) = \Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2)$ .

Suppose  $\Theta(\psi) = \pi$ . Then  $S$  becomes a sharp sector, and  $C(S)$  contains only one element. With no loss of generality, we assume that  $C(S) = \{(0, -1)\}$ . Since  $S_i - p_i \subset S - p$  for  $i = 1, 2$ ,  $S_1, S_2$  are also sharp sectors, and  $C(S_1) = C(S_2) = \{(0, -1)\}$ . So we must have  $\Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2) = \pi$ . Thus  $\Theta(\psi) = \Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2)$ . Suppose  $\Theta(\psi) = -\pi$ . Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be the end curve and the start curve of  $S$  respectively, and let  $\alpha_i$  and  $\beta_i$  be the end curve and the start curve of  $S_i$  respectively for  $i = 1, 2$ . In this case,  $S$  becomes a dull sector, and  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha] = \mathbf{v}[\beta]$ . With no loss of generality, assume  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha] = \mathbf{v}[\beta] = (0, 1)$ . Note that  $\Theta(\psi_1), \Theta(\psi_2)$  are  $\pi$  or  $-\pi$ . Since  $\Theta(\psi_1), \Theta(\psi_2) \neq 0$ ,  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  cannot be flat sectors. Since  $S_1, S_2$  are admissible to each other, they cannot be dull sectors simultaneously. Suppose both  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are sharp sectors. Then it is easy to see that  $C(S_i) = \{(0, 1)\}$  or  $\{(0, -1)\}$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . So, from Lemma 7.2, we can see that at least one of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  is not contained in  $S_1 + S_2$ , which contradicts the assumption that  $\gamma^1 = \gamma_1^1 + \gamma_2^1$  and  $\gamma^2 = \gamma_1^2 + \gamma_2^2$ . So  $S_1, S_2$  cannot be sharp sectors simultaneously. It follows that one of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  is a sharp sector and the other is a dull sector. Assume that  $S_1$  is a sharp sector and  $S_2$  is a dull sector. Then it is easy to see that  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_1] = \mathbf{v}[\beta_1] = (0, -1)$ ,  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_2] = \mathbf{v}[\beta_2] = (0, 1)$ , and so  $\Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2) = -\pi$ . Thus we conclude that  $\Theta(\psi) = \Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2)$ , if  $p_1^1 = p_1^2$  (or equivalently,  $p_2^1 = p_2^2$ ).

Suppose now  $p_1^1 \neq p_2^1$ . Then it is easy to see that one of  $O_{\Omega_1}(\eta_1)$  and  $O_{\Omega_2}(\eta_2)$  is + and the other is -. Moreover,  $O_{\Omega_i}(\eta_i|_{[a,b]})$  cannot be  $-O_{\Omega_i}(\eta_i)$  for any  $[a,b] \subset [0,1]$ , for  $i = 1, 2$ . We will also show that  $\Theta(\psi) = \Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2)$  in this case. First, it is easy to see that  $\Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2)$  from the fact that  $\mathbf{m}_1(0) = \mathbf{m}_2(0)$ ,  $\mathbf{m}_1(1) = \mathbf{m}_2(1)$ , and that  $\Omega_1, \tilde{\Omega}_2$  are in contact position to each other. Since  $\mathbf{m}(0) = \mathbf{m}_1(0)$  and  $\mathbf{m}(1) = \mathbf{m}_1(1)$ , we have  $\Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi) + 2n\pi$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . We have seen that one of  $O_{\Omega_1}(\eta_1)$  and  $O_{\Omega_2}(\eta_2)$  is + and the other is -. So, one of  $O_{\Omega_1}(\psi_1)$  and  $O_{\Omega_2}(\psi_2)$  is + and the other is -. With no loss of generality, assume that  $O_{\Omega_1}(\psi_1) = +$  and  $O_{\Omega_2}(\psi_2) = -$ . Since  $\Omega_1, \Omega_2$  are semi-convex, we have  $\Theta(\psi_1) \geq -\pi$  and  $\Theta(\psi_2) \leq \pi$ . So we have  $-\pi \leq \Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2) \leq \pi$ . Thus, it follows that  $\Theta(\psi) = \Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2)$ , if  $-\pi < \Theta(\psi) < \pi$ .

It remains to consider the cases when  $\Theta(\psi) = \pi$  or  $-\pi$ . Take  $r > 0$  such that  $S_i^k = B_r(p_i^k) \cap \Omega_i$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p_i^k$  and radius  $r$  for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, 2$ , and  $S = B_{2r}(p) \cap \Omega$  is a non-degenerate  $\mathcal{M}$ -sector with center  $p$  and radius  $2r$ . We can assume  $S_1^k$  and  $S_2^k$  are admissible to each other for  $k = 1, 2$ . Note that  $S_i^k - p_i^k \subset (S_1^k + S_2^k) - p \subset S - p$  for  $i = 1, 2, k = 1, 2$ . Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be the end curve and the start curve of  $S$  respectively, and let  $\alpha_i^k$  and  $\beta_i^k$  be the end curve and the start curve of  $S_i^k$  respectively for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, 2$ . Suppose  $\Theta(\psi) = \pi$ . Then  $S$  is a sharp sector, and  $C(S)$  contains only one element, which we assume to be  $(0, -1)$  with no loss of generality. Since  $S_i^k - p_i^k \subset S - p$  for  $i = 1, 2, k = 1, 2$ , we have  $C(S_i^k) = \{(0, -1)\}$  for  $i = 1, 2, k = 1, 2$ . So  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_i^k] = \mathbf{v}[\beta_i^k] = (0, -1)$  for  $i = 1, 2, k = 1, 2$ . We can assume with no loss of generality that  $O_{\Omega_1}(\psi_1) = +$  and  $O_{\Omega_2}(\psi_2) = -$ . Suppose  $\Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2) = -\pi$ . Note that  $\mathbf{m}(0) = (1, 0)$  and  $\mathbf{m}(1) = (-1, 0)$ . So it is easy to see that  $-\pi = \Theta(\psi_1) = \pi + \Theta(\psi'_1) + \pi$ , where  $\psi'_1 : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v \Omega_1$  is a one-to-one continuous map such that  $\psi'_1(0) = (p_1^1, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_1}^+(p_1^1))$ ,  $\psi'_1(1) = (p_1^2, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_1}^-(p_1^2))$ , and  $O_{\Omega_1}(\psi'_1) = +$ . Now we have  $\Theta(\psi'_1) = -3\pi$ , which is a contradiction since  $\Omega_1$  is semi-convex. So we must have  $\Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2) = \pi$ , and hence  $\Theta(\psi) = \Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2)$ , if  $\Theta(\psi) = \pi$ .

Suppose  $\Theta(\psi) = -\pi$ . Then  $S$  is a dull sector, and  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha] = \mathbf{v}[\beta]$ , which is assumed to be  $(0, 1)$  with no loss of generality. Let  $S' = B_{2r}(p) \setminus S$ . Suppose  $\Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2) = \pi$ . With no loss of generality, assume that  $O_{\Omega_1}(\psi_1) = +$  and  $O_{\Omega_2}(\psi_2) = -$ . Note that  $\mathbf{m}(0) = (-1, 0)$ ,  $\mathbf{m}(1) = (1, 0)$ , and  $S_i^k - p_i^k \subset S_1^k + S_2^k - p \subset S - p$  for  $i = 1, 2, k = 1, 2$ . Let  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_2^1] = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ . If  $\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{3}{2}\pi$ , then  $\mathbf{m}_1(0) = (-1, 0)$  cannot be in  $\text{NC}_{\Omega_2}(p_2^1)$ . If  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$ , then there exists  $t_0 \in (0, 1)$  such that  $\Theta(\psi_2|_{[0, t_0]}) < 0$ . So  $\Theta(\psi_2|_{[t_0, 1]}) = \Theta(\psi_2) - \Theta(\psi_2|_{[0, t_0]}) > \pi$ , which is impossible since  $\Omega_2$  is semi-convex and  $O_{\Omega_2}(\psi_2) = -$ . Thus we must have  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_2^1] = (0, 1)$ . Note also that  $\sigma(\beta_2^1) \neq -$  for the same reason. In the same way, we can see that  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_2^1] = (0, 1)$  and  $\sigma(\alpha_2^1) \neq +$ . Let  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_1^1] = (\cos \theta_1, \sin \theta_1)$  and  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_1^1] = (\cos \theta_2, \sin \theta_2)$ . Suppose  $\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta_1 < \frac{3}{2}\pi$ . Then, we should have  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_1^1] = (0, 1)$  in order for  $\mathbf{m}(0) = (-1, 0)$  to be in  $\text{NC}_{\Omega_1}(p_1^1)$ . Since  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_2^1] = (0, 1)$ , it follows from Lemma 7.2 that  $B_\rho(p) \subset S_1^1 + S_2^1 \subset S$  for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ , which is impossible. Suppose  $\theta_1 = \frac{\pi}{2}$ . Then, in order for  $\mathbf{m}(0)$  to be in  $\text{NC}_{\Omega_1}(p_1^1)$ , we must have  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_1^1] = (0, 1)$  again, and  $C(S_1^1) = \{(0, 1)\}$  or  $\partial B_1(0)$ . If  $C(S_1^1) = \partial B_1(0)$ , then we would also have the same contradiction  $B_\rho(p) \subset S_1^1 + S_2^1$  by Lemma 7.2. So  $C(S_1^1) = \{(0, 1)\}$ . Let  $W_1$  be the sharp sector with center 0 and radius  $2r$ , whose start curve and end curve are  $\beta - p$  and  $\{(x, 0) \mid 0 \leq x \leq 2r\}$  respectively. Let  $W_2$  be the sharp sector with center 0 and radius  $2r$ , whose start curve and end curve are  $\{(x, 0) \mid -2r \leq x \leq 0\}$  and  $\alpha - p$  respectively. Note that  $\alpha_1^1 - p_1^1, \beta_1^1 - p_1^1 \subset W_1$  and  $\beta_2^1 - p_2^1 \subset W_2$  for some  $i, j = 1, 2$ . If  $i \neq j$ , then  $B_\rho(p) \cap S' \subset S_1^1 + S_2^1 \subset S$  by Lemma 7.2, which is a contradiction. So  $i = j$ . Suppose  $i = j = 2$ . Since  $S_2^1 - p_2^1 \subset S - p$ , we also have  $\alpha_2^1 - p_2^1 \subset W_2$  and  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_2^1] = (0, 1)$ . Now from Lemma 2.3, we can see that  $\beta - p$  cannot be any of  $\alpha_1^1 - p_1^1, \beta_1^1 - p_1^1, \alpha_2^1 - p_2^1, \beta_2^1 - p_2^1$ , or their convolutions. From Lemma 6.7 and Theorem 6.2 (3), we can see that this contradicts the assumption that  $\gamma^1 = \gamma_1^1 + \gamma_2^1$ . Suppose  $i = j = 1$ . Since  $\sigma(\beta_2^1) \neq -$ , we must have  $\sigma(\beta) \neq -$  and  $\sigma(\alpha) = +$ . So,  $\alpha_2^2 - p_2^2, \beta_2^2 - p_2^2 \subset W_1$  and  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_2^2] = (0, 1)$ , since  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_2^2] = (0, 1)$ ,  $\sigma(\alpha_2^2) \neq +$  and  $S_2^2 - p_2^2 \subset S - p$ . Since  $\gamma^2 = \gamma_1^2 + \gamma_2^2$ ,  $\alpha - p$  should be one of  $\alpha_1^2 - p_1^2, \beta_1^2 - p_1^2, \alpha_2^2 - p_2^2, \beta_2^2 - p_2^2$ , or their convolutions by Lemma 6.7 and Theorem 6.2 (3). There are only two cases to make this possible: Either  $\alpha - p$  is one of  $\alpha_1^2 - p_1^2$  and  $\beta_1^2 - p_1^2$ , or  $\sigma(\beta_2^2) = +$  and  $\alpha = \beta_2^2 * \gamma$  for some  $\gamma = \alpha_1^2$  or  $\beta_1^2$ . But it is easy to see from Lemma 7.2 that, for both cases,  $S_1^1 + S_2^1$  would have intersection with  $B_\rho(p) \cap S'$  for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ , which is a contradiction. Thus  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_1^1] \neq (0, 1)$ . So we have  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta_1 < \frac{\pi}{2}$ . Similarly, we can show that  $\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta_2 \leq \frac{3}{2}\pi$ .

Suppose  $\theta_1 = -\frac{\pi}{2}$ , i.e.,  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_1^1] = (0, -1)$ . Let  $\alpha_1$  be the non-negative angle of the counter-clockwise rotation from  $-\mathbf{v}[\beta_2^1]$  to  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_1^1]$  in  $V$ , where  $V$  is the region bounded by  $\eta_1$  and  $-\eta_2 + p$ . Let  $\alpha_2$  be the non-negative angle of the counter-clockwise rotation from  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_1^1]$  to  $-\mathbf{v}[\alpha_2^1]$  in  $V$ . Suppose either  $\sigma(\alpha_1^1) = -$  or  $\alpha_1^1 \triangleleft \beta_2^1$ . Then we have  $\alpha_1 = 2\pi$ , since  $S_1^1, S_2^1$  are admissible to each other. For  $i = 1, 2$ , we can choose  $[a_i, b_i] \subset [0, 1]$  such that  $\psi_1(a_1) = (p_1^1, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_1}^+(p_1^1))$ ,  $\psi_1(b_1) = (p_1^2, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_1}^-(p_1^2))$ , and  $\psi_2(a_2) = (p_2^1, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_2}^-(p_2^1))$ ,  $\psi_2(b_2) = (p_2^2, \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_2}^+(p_2^2))$ . Note that  $a_1 = a_2 = 0$ , since  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_1^1] = -\mathbf{v}[\beta_2^1] = (0, -1)$ . By Lemma 5.4 (1), we have  $\Theta(\psi_1|_{[0, b_1]}) - \Theta(\psi_2|_{[0, b_2]}) + 2\pi + \alpha_2 = 0$ . Since  $\Omega_1, \Omega_2$  are semi-convex, we must have  $\Theta(\psi_1|_{[0, b_1]}) = -\pi$ ,  $\Theta(\psi_2|_{[0, b_2]}) = \pi$  and  $\alpha_2 = 0$ . Since  $\alpha_2 = 0$  and  $\mathbf{m}(1) = \mathbf{m}_1(1) = \mathbf{m}_2(1) = (1, 0)$ , it follows that  $\Theta(\psi_1) = -\pi$ ,

which contradicts the assumption. Thus we must have  $\sigma(\alpha_1^1) \neq -$  and either  $\alpha_1^1 \triangleright \beta_2^1$  or  $\alpha_1^1 \sim \beta_2^1$ , when  $\mathbf{v}[\alpha_1^1] = (0, -1)$ . Similarly, we can show that  $\sigma(\beta_1^2) \neq +$  and either  $\beta_1^2 \triangleright \alpha_2^2$  or  $\beta_1^2 \sim \alpha_2^2$ , if  $\mathbf{v}[\beta_1^2] = (0, -1)$ . Now it is easy to see from Lemma 7.2 that  $(S_1^1 + S_2^1) \cup (S_1^2 + S_2^2)$  contains  $B_\rho(p) \cap S'$  for sufficiently small  $\rho > 0$ . This is a contradiction, since  $S_1^1 + S_2^1, S_1^2 + S_2^2 \subset S$ . Thus we must have  $\Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2) = -\pi$ .

Summarizing the above arguments, we conclude that  $\Theta(\psi) = \Theta(\psi_1) = \Theta(\psi_2)$  in any case.

For  $i = 1, 2$ , define  $\tilde{\eta}_i : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  by  $\tilde{\eta}_i(t) = -\eta_i(t) + p$ . It is easy to see that  $\tilde{\eta}_i$  is in  $\partial\tilde{\Omega}_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , and  $\tilde{\eta}_1(0) = p_1^1, \tilde{\eta}_1(1) = p_2^1, \tilde{\eta}_2(0) = p_1^2, \tilde{\eta}_2(1) = p_2^2$ . Let  $V_1$  be the region enclosed by  $\eta_1$  and  $\tilde{\eta}_2$ , and  $V_2$  be the region enclosed by  $\eta_2$  and  $\tilde{\eta}_1$ . By Lemma 5.4 (3), there exists a homotopy  $A_i : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \overline{V_i}$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , such that  $A_1(t, 0) = \eta_1(t), A_1(t, 1) = \tilde{\eta}_2(t), A_1(0, s) = p_1^1, A_1(1, s) = p_2^1$ , and  $A_2(t, 0) = \eta_2(t), A_2(t, 1) = \tilde{\eta}_1(t), A_2(0, s) = p_2^1, A_2(1, s) = p_2^2$  for every  $(t, s) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ . For  $i = 1, 2$ , let  $B_i : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be the homotopy defined by

$$\begin{aligned} B_1(t, s) &= I_p(H_{\Omega_2;0}(\eta_2(t), s)), \\ B_2(t, s) &= I_p(H_{\Omega_1;0}(\eta_1(t), s)), \end{aligned}$$

for  $(t, s) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ . Then it is easy to check that  $B_1(t, 0) = \tilde{\eta}_2(t), B_2(t, 0) = \tilde{\eta}_1(t)$ , and  $B_1(t, 1) = B_2(t, 1) = p$  for  $t \in [0, 1]$ . It is also easy to see that  $B_i([0, 1] \times [0, 1]) \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . For  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, 2$ , we define  $E_i^k : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$E_i^k(t, s) = \gamma_i^k(t)$$

for  $(t, s) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ .

Now we can see that the homotopy  $G_i = \begin{smallmatrix} H_i^1 & \cdot & B_i & \cdot & H_i^2 \\ E_i^1 & \cdot & A_i & \cdot & E_i^2 \end{smallmatrix}$  is well-defined, where  $H_i$ 's are defined as in Lemma 7.3, and  $G_i([0, 3] \times [0, 2]) \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . See Figure 16. Note that  $\gamma_i^1 \cdot \eta_i \cdot \gamma_i^2$  is homotopic to  $\gamma^1 \cdot \eta \cdot \gamma^2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_i$  via  $G_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ .

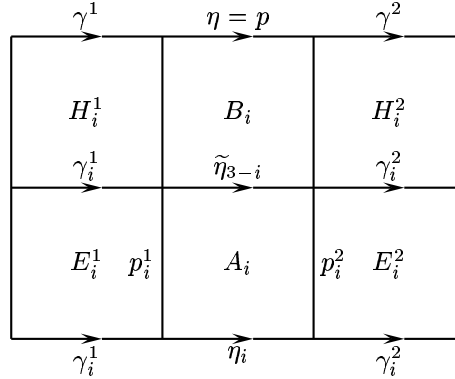


FIGURE 16. The Homotopy  $G_i = \begin{smallmatrix} H_i^1 & \cdot & B_i & \cdot & H_i^2 \\ E_i^1 & \cdot & A_i & \cdot & E_i^2 \end{smallmatrix}$

Let  $\tilde{\phi} : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega$ ,  $\tilde{\phi}(t) = (\tilde{\gamma}(t), \tilde{\mathbf{n}}(t))$  be a locally one-to-one, continuous map such that  $O_\Omega(\tilde{\phi}) = +$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}(0), \tilde{\gamma}(1)$  are flat points. Since  $[0, 1]$  is compact and  $\tilde{\gamma}(0), \tilde{\gamma}(1)$  are flat points, it is easy to see from Lemma 7.3 that there exist  $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = p^0, \dots, p^n = \tilde{\gamma}(1) \in \partial\Omega$  and continuous maps  $\phi^k : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega$ ,  $\phi^k(t) = (\gamma^k(t), \mathbf{n}^k(t))$  and  $\phi_i^k : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega_i$ ,  $\phi_i^k(t) = (\gamma_i^k(t), \mathbf{n}_i^k(t))$  for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , such that:

- (1)  $\gamma^k(0) = p^{k-1}, \gamma^k(1) = p^k$ ,  $\gamma^k$  is one-to-one, and  $O_\Omega(\gamma^k) = +$  for each  $k$ .
- (2) Each of  $\phi_i^k$ 's and  $\gamma_i^k$ 's is either one-to-one or constant, and, if one of  $O_{\Omega_1}(\gamma_1^k)$  and  $O_{\Omega_2}(\gamma_2^k)$  is  $-$ , then the other is  $+$  for each  $k$ .
- (3) For each  $k$ ,  $\gamma^k(t) = \gamma_1^k(t) + \gamma_2^k(t)$  and  $\mathbf{n}^k(t) = \mathbf{n}_1^k(t) = \mathbf{n}_2^k(t)$  for  $t \in [0, 1]$ .
- (4) For each  $k$ ,  $\Theta(\phi^k) = \Theta(\phi_1^k) = \Theta(\phi_2^k)$ , and  $\gamma_i^k$  is homotopic to  $\gamma^k$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_i$  via the homotopy  $H_i^k : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , where

$$\begin{aligned} H_1^k(t, s) &= I_{\gamma^k(t)}(H_{\Omega_2;0}(\gamma_2^k(t), s)), \\ H_2^k(t, s) &= I_{\gamma^k(t)}(H_{\Omega_1;0}(\gamma_1^k(t), s)), \end{aligned}$$

for  $(t, s) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ .

(5) There exists a continuous, onto, non-decreasing function  $\tilde{h} : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, n]$  such that  $\tilde{\gamma}(t) = (\gamma^1 \cdot \dots \cdot \gamma^n)(\tilde{h}(t))$  for  $t \in [0, 1]$ .

From the above arguments, there exist continuous maps  $\psi^k : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v \Omega$ ,  $\psi^k(t) = (\eta^k(t), \mathbf{m}^k(t))$  and  $\psi_i^k : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v \Omega_i$ ,  $\psi_i^k(t) = (\eta_i^k(t), \mathbf{m}_i^k(t))$ , and a homotopy  $A_i^k : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \overline{V_i^k}$  for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, \dots, n-1$  ( $k = 1, \dots, n$ , if  $\tilde{\phi}(0) = \tilde{\phi}(1)$ ), where  $V_i^k \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus (\Omega_i \cup (-\Omega_{3-i} + p^k))$  is the region bounded by  $\eta_i^k$  and  $\tilde{\eta}_{3-i}^k = -\eta_{3-i}^k + p^k$ , such that  $\Theta(\psi^k) = \Theta(\psi_1^k) = \Theta(\psi_2^k)$ , and  $\gamma_i^k \cdot \eta_i^k \cdot \gamma_i^{k+1}$  is homotopic to  $\gamma^k \cdot \eta^k \cdot \gamma^{k+1}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int} \Omega_i$  via  $\begin{smallmatrix} H_i^k & \cdot & B_i^k & \cdot & H_i^{k+1} \\ E_i^k & \cdot & A_i^k & \cdot & E_i^{k+1} \end{smallmatrix}$  for  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, \dots, n-1$  ( $k = 1, \dots, n$ , if  $\tilde{\phi}(0) = \tilde{\phi}(1)$ ).

Here, we let  $\phi^{n+1} = \phi^1$ ,  $\gamma^{n+1} = \gamma^1$ , and  $\phi_i^{n+1} = \phi_i^1$ ,  $\gamma_i^{n+1} = \gamma_i^1$ ,  $H_i^{n+1} = H_i^1$ ,  $E_i^{n+1} = E_i^1$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . For  $i = 1, 2$  and  $k = 1, \dots, n-1$  (or  $n$ ), define  $E_i^k(t, s) = \gamma_i^k(t)$  for  $(t, s) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} B_1^k(t, s) &= I_{p^k}(H_{\Omega_2, 0}(\eta_2^k(t), s)), \\ B_2^k(t, s) &= I_{p^k}(H_{\Omega_1, 0}(\eta_1^k(t), s)), \end{aligned}$$

for  $(t, s) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ .

For  $i = 1, 2$ , let

$$\begin{aligned} \phi &= \phi^1 \cdot \psi^1 \cdot \phi^2 \cdot \dots \cdot \psi^{n-1} \cdot \phi^n, \\ \phi_i &= \phi_i^1 \cdot \psi_i^1 \cdot \phi_i^2 \cdot \dots \cdot \psi_i^{n-1} \cdot \phi_i^n, \\ \gamma &= \gamma^1 \cdot \eta^1 \cdot \gamma^2 \cdot \dots \cdot \eta^{n-1} \cdot \gamma^n, \\ \gamma_i &= \gamma_i^1 \cdot \eta_i^1 \cdot \gamma_i^2 \cdot \dots \cdot \eta_i^{n-1} \cdot \gamma_i^n, \\ \tilde{\gamma}_i &= \gamma_i^1 \cdot \tilde{\eta}_{3-i}^1 \cdot \gamma_i^2 \cdot \dots \cdot \tilde{\eta}_{3-i}^{n-1} \cdot \gamma_i^n, \\ P_i &= E_i^1 \cdot A_i^1 \cdot E_i^2 \cdot \dots \cdot A_i^{n-1} \cdot E_i^n, \\ Q_i &= H_i^1 \cdot B_i^1 \cdot H_i^2 \cdot \dots \cdot B_i^{n-1} \cdot H_i^n. \end{aligned}$$

When  $\tilde{\phi}(0) = \tilde{\phi}(1)$ , we let

$$\begin{aligned} \phi &= \phi^1 \cdot \psi^1 \cdot \phi^2 \cdot \dots \cdot \psi^{n-1} \cdot \phi^n \cdot \psi^n, \\ \phi_i &= \phi_i^1 \cdot \psi_i^1 \cdot \phi_i^2 \cdot \dots \cdot \psi_i^{n-1} \cdot \phi_i^n \cdot \psi_i^n, \\ \gamma &= \gamma^1 \cdot \eta^1 \cdot \gamma^2 \cdot \dots \cdot \eta^{n-1} \cdot \gamma^n \cdot \eta^n, \\ \gamma_i &= \gamma_i^1 \cdot \eta_i^1 \cdot \gamma_i^2 \cdot \dots \cdot \eta_i^{n-1} \cdot \gamma_i^n \cdot \eta_i^n, \\ \tilde{\gamma}_i &= \gamma_i^1 \cdot \tilde{\eta}_{3-i}^1 \cdot \gamma_i^2 \cdot \dots \cdot \tilde{\eta}_{3-i}^{n-1} \cdot \gamma_i^n \cdot \tilde{\eta}_{3-i}^n, \\ P_i &= E_i^1 \cdot A_i^1 \cdot E_i^2 \cdot \dots \cdot A_i^{n-1} \cdot E_i^n \cdot A_i^n, \\ Q_i &= H_i^1 \cdot B_i^1 \cdot H_i^2 \cdot \dots \cdot B_i^{n-1} \cdot H_i^n \cdot B_i^n, \end{aligned}$$

for  $i = 1, 2$ .

Note that  $Q_i(t, s) = I_{\gamma(t)}(H_{\Omega_{3-i}, 0}(I_{\gamma(t)}(\tilde{\gamma}_i(t)), s))$  for  $(t, s) \in [0, 2n-1] \times [0, 1]$  (for  $(t, s) \in [0, 2n] \times [0, 1]$  if  $\tilde{\phi}(0) = \tilde{\phi}(1)$ ), for  $i = 1, 2$ . For  $i = 1, 2$ , let  $H_i = \begin{smallmatrix} Q_i \\ P_i \end{smallmatrix}$ . See Figure 17. Now it is easy to see that  $\gamma_i$  is homotopic to  $\tilde{\gamma}_i$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int} \Omega_i$  via  $P_i$ , and  $\tilde{\gamma}_i$  is homotopic to  $\gamma$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int} \Omega_i$  via  $Q_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . So  $\gamma_i$  is homotopic to  $\gamma$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int} \Omega_i$  via  $H_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Furthermore, if  $\tilde{\phi}(0) = \tilde{\phi}(1)$ , then  $H_i(0, s) = H_i(2n, s)$  for  $s \in [0, 2]$ . It is also easy to see that  $\Theta(\tilde{\phi}) = \Theta(\phi) = \Theta(\phi_1) = \Theta(\phi_2)$ .

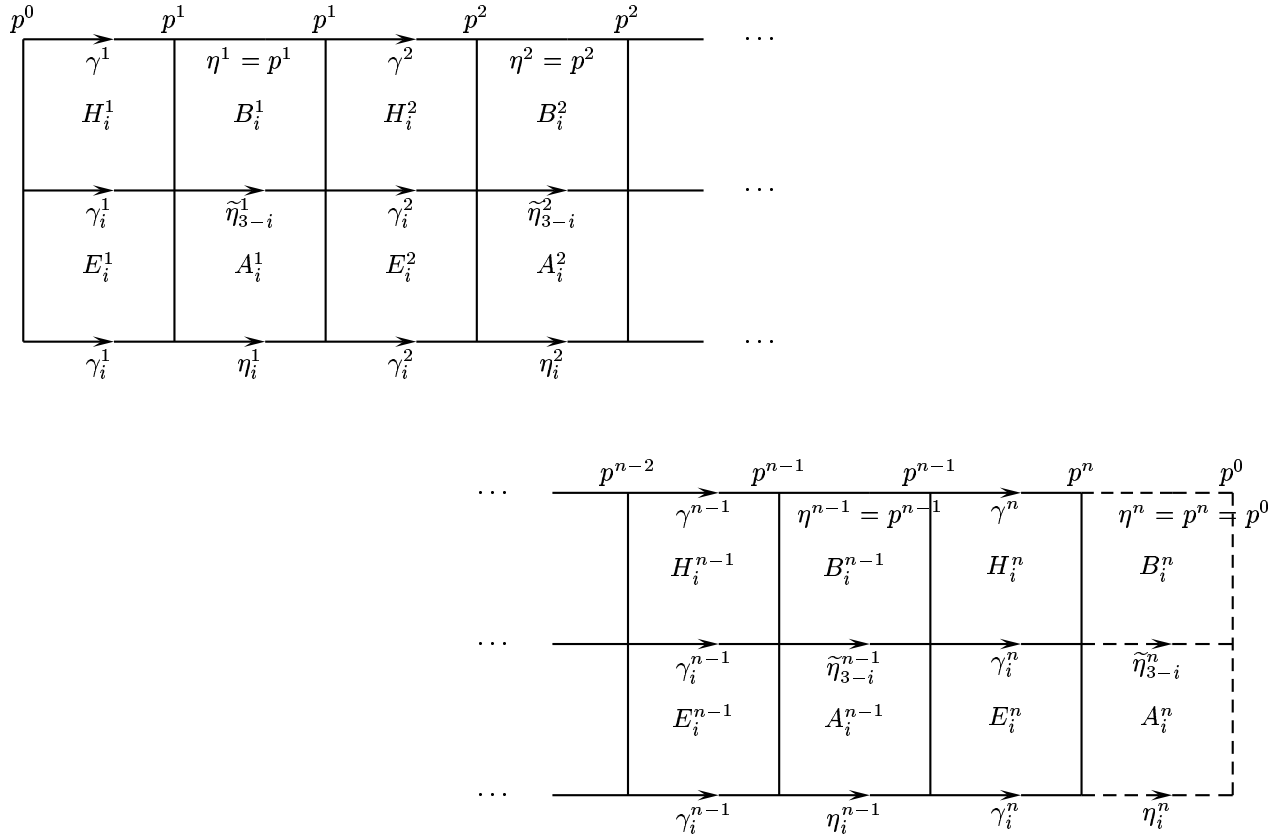
Finally, we obtain the following theorem by using the above arguments:

**Theorem 7.2. (Simple-connectedness of Minkowski Sum of Semi-convex Domains)**

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class, and let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains. Then their Minkowski sum  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$  is a simply-connected regular  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain.

*Proof.* From Theorem 7.1, we know that  $\Omega$  is a regular  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain. With no loss of generality, we assume  $0 \in \text{int} \Omega_1, \text{int} \Omega_2$ . Clearly, this implies  $0 \in \text{int} \Omega$ . Suppose  $\Omega$  is not simply-connected. Then there exists an inner boundary  $C$  of  $\Omega$ . Let  $\tilde{C}$  be the connected component of  $\partial^v \Omega$  corresponding to  $C$ , and let  $\tilde{\phi} : [0, 1] \rightarrow \tilde{C}$ ,  $\tilde{\phi}(t) = (\tilde{\gamma}(t), \tilde{\mathbf{n}}(t))$  be a continuous map such that  $\tilde{\phi}(0) = \tilde{\phi}(1)$ ,  $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = \tilde{\gamma}(1)$  is a flat point,  $\tilde{\phi}|_{[0, 1]}$  is one-to-one, and  $O_\Omega(\tilde{\phi}) = +$ . (That is,  $\tilde{\phi}$  traverses  $\tilde{C}$  exactly once in the standard orientation.) Then  $\Theta(\tilde{\phi}) = -2\pi$  by Lemma 5.2 (1).

Now take  $\phi$ ,  $\phi_i$ , and  $H_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$  as in the above arguments. We have  $\Theta(\tilde{\phi}) = \Theta(\phi) = \Theta(\phi_1) = \Theta(\phi_2)$ , and  $\gamma_i$  is homotopic to  $\gamma$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int} \Omega_i$  via  $H_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Also,  $\gamma$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}$  are homotopic in  $\partial \Omega$ . So we have

FIGURE 17. The Homotopy  $H_i = \frac{Q_i}{P_i}$ 

$\text{Ind}_{\tilde{\gamma}}(0) = \text{Ind}_{\gamma}(0) = \text{Ind}_{\gamma_1}(0) = \text{Ind}_{\gamma_2}(0)$ , since  $0 \in \text{int}\Omega, \text{int}\Omega_1, \text{int}\Omega_2$ . Since  $C$  is an inner boundary of  $\Omega$  and  $0 \in \text{int}\Omega$ , we have  $\text{Ind}_{\gamma}(0) = 0$  by Lemma 5.2 (2). So we have  $\text{Ind}_{\gamma_i}(0) = 0$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . It follows that  $\Theta(\phi_1) = \Theta(\phi_2) = 0$  again by Lemma 5.2 (2), since  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  are simply-connected and hence have no inner boundaries. So we have  $\Theta(\tilde{\phi}) = 0$ , which is a contradiction. Thus we conclude that  $\Omega$  is simply-connected, completing the proof.  $\square$

## 8. MAXIMALITY OF SEMI-CONVEXITY

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a subclass of  $\mathcal{C}_c^{1:1}$  which is closed under restriction. In this section, we show that for any regular  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain which is not semi-convex, there exists a semi-convex  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain so that their Minkowski sum is not simply-connected. Combined with Theorem 7.2, this answers Problem 2 posed in Section 1 within the category of  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains for any Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ . In fact, it is shown that we can choose this domain among a special kind of semi-convex  $\mathcal{C}$ -domains, which we call *flag domains*. Note that  $\mathcal{C}$  need not be a Minkowski class.

First, we observe the following easy fact:

**Lemma 8.1.** *Let  $\Omega$  be a regular  $\mathcal{C}_c^{1:1}$ -domain which is not semi-convex. Then there exists a one-to-one continuous map  $\phi : [-\epsilon, 1 + \epsilon] \rightarrow \partial^v \Omega$ ,  $\phi(t) = (\gamma(t), \mathbf{n}(t))$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ , which satisfies the following conditions:*

- (1)  $O_{\Omega}(\phi) = +$  and  $\Theta(\phi|_{[0,1]}) = -\pi$ .
- (2)  $-\pi < \Theta(\phi|_{[s,t]}) < \pi$  for every proper subinterval  $[s, t]$  of  $[0, 1]$ .
- (3) Let  $\theta : [-\epsilon, 1 + \epsilon] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be an angle function of  $\phi$ . Then  $\theta$  is strictly decreasing on  $[-\epsilon, \epsilon]$  and  $[1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon]$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\Omega$  is not semi-convex, there exists a one-to-one continuous map  $\tilde{\phi} : [a, b] \rightarrow \partial^v \Omega$  such that  $O_{\Omega}(\tilde{\phi}) = +$  and  $\Theta(\tilde{\phi}) < -\pi$ . Let  $\tilde{\theta} : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be an angle function of  $\tilde{\phi}$ . Since  $\Omega$  is a  $\mathcal{C}_c^{1:1}$ -domain, we can divide  $[a, b]$  into a finite number of subintervals on which  $\tilde{\theta}$  is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing

or constant. It follows that the number of the critical values of  $\tilde{\theta}$  is finite. So we can take  $a < a' < b' < b$  such that  $\Theta(\tilde{\phi}|_{[a', b']}) = -\pi$  and  $\tilde{\theta}$  is strictly monotone near every  $t \in [a, b]$  such that  $\tilde{\theta}(t) = \tilde{\theta}(a')$  or  $\tilde{\theta}(b')$ . Now it is easy to see that there exist  $a' \leq a'' < b'' \leq b'$  such that  $\tilde{\theta}(a'') = \tilde{\theta}(a')$ ,  $\tilde{\theta}(b'') = \tilde{\theta}(b')$ ,  $\tilde{\theta}$  is strictly decreasing near  $a''$  and  $b''$ , and  $\tilde{\theta}(b'') < \tilde{\theta}(t) < \tilde{\theta}(a'')$  for every  $t \in (a'', b'')$ . So we can take a strictly increasing continuous function  $h : [-\epsilon, 1 + \epsilon] \rightarrow [a, b]$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ , such that  $h(0) = a''$ ,  $h(1) = b''$  and  $\tilde{\theta}$  is strictly decreasing on  $h([-\epsilon, \epsilon])$  and  $h([1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon])$ . Taking  $\phi(t) = \tilde{\phi}(h(t))$  for  $t \in [-\epsilon, 1 + \epsilon]$ , we can check easily that  $\phi$  satisfies conditions (1), (2) and (3).  $\square$

For any  $p \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , we will denote the  $x$ -coordinate of  $p$  by  $p_x$ , and the  $y$ -coordinate of  $p$  by  $p_y$ .

**Theorem 8.1. (Maximality of Semi-convexity)**

Let  $C \subset C_c^{1,1}$  be closed under restriction, and let  $\Omega_1$  be a regular  $C$ -domain which is not semi-convex. Then there exists a semi-convex  $C$ -domain  $\Omega_2$  such that  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$  is not simply-connected.

*Proof.* By Lemma 8.1, we can take a one-to-one continuous map  $\phi : [-\epsilon', 1 + \epsilon'] \rightarrow \partial^v \Omega_1$ ,  $\phi(t) = (\gamma(t), \mathbf{n}(t))$  for some  $\epsilon' > 0$ , such that  $O_{\Omega_1}(\phi) = +$ ,  $\Theta(\phi|_{[0,1]}) = -\pi$ ,  $-\pi < \Theta(\phi|_{[s,t]}) < \pi$  for every proper subinterval  $[s, t]$  of  $[0, 1]$ , and  $\theta$  is strictly decreasing on  $[-\epsilon', \epsilon']$  and  $[1 - \epsilon', 1 + \epsilon']$ , where  $\theta$  is an angle function of  $\phi$ . With no loss of generality, assume  $\mathbf{n}(0) = (-1, 0)$ . Let  $a = \gamma(1)_x$  and  $b = \gamma(0)_x$ . Let  $\mathbf{v}(t)$  be the unit vector obtained from rotating  $\mathbf{n}(t)$  counter-clockwise by  $90^\circ$  for  $t \in [-\epsilon', 1 + \epsilon']$ . Suppose  $\gamma(t_0)_x \geq b$  for some  $t_0 \in (0, 1)$  such that  $\gamma(t_0) \neq \gamma(0)$ . Then it is easy to see that there exists  $t_1 \in (0, t_0)$  such that  $\mathbf{v}(t_1)_x \geq 0$ . So we have  $\mathbf{n}(t_1)_y \leq 0$ , and hence  $\Theta(\phi|_{[0, t_1]}) \geq 0$ , since  $-\pi < \Theta(\phi|_{[0, t_1]}) < \pi$ . It follows that  $\Theta(\phi|_{[t_1, 1]}) = \Theta(\phi|_{[0, 1]}) - \Theta(\phi|_{[0, t_1]}) \leq -\pi$ , which is impossible. Thus we conclude that  $\gamma(t)_x < b$  for every  $t \in (0, 1)$  such that  $\gamma(t) \neq \gamma(0)$ . In an analogous way, we can show that  $\gamma(t)_x > a$  for every  $t \in (0, 1)$  such that  $\gamma(t) \neq \gamma(1)$ . Thus  $a < \gamma(t)_x < b$  for every  $t \in (0, 1)$  such that  $\gamma(t) \neq \gamma(0), \gamma(1)$ . Suppose  $\gamma(t_1)_x = \gamma(t_2)_x$  for some  $0 < t_1 < t_2 < 1$  such that  $\gamma(t_1) \neq \gamma(t_2)$ . Then it is easy to see that there exists  $t_3 \in (t_1, t_2)$  such that  $\mathbf{v}(t_3)_x = 0$ . So  $\mathbf{n}(t_3)_y = 0$ , which implies  $\mathbf{n}(t_3) = (1, 0)$  or  $(-1, 0)$ . It follows that either  $|\Theta(\phi|_{[0, t_3]})| \geq \pi$  or  $|\Theta(\phi|_{[t_3, 1])}| \geq \pi$ . But this contradicts the assumption that  $-\pi < \Theta(\phi|_{[0, t_3]}) < \pi$  and  $-\pi < \Theta(\phi|_{[t_3, 1]}) < \pi$ . Thus we conclude that  $\gamma(t_1)_x \neq \gamma(t_2)_x$  for every  $t_1, t_2 \in (0, 1)$  such that  $\gamma(t_1) \neq \gamma(t_2)$ . Now from these observations, it is clear that there exists a continuous function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , whose graph is  $\gamma([0, 1])$ .

Let  $\gamma^+ : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial \Omega_1$  be a one-to-one continuous curve such that  $\gamma^+(0) = \gamma(1)$ , and  $O_{\Omega_1}(\gamma^+) = +$ . Note that, if  $\gamma^+((0, \epsilon'')) \not\subset \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a < x < b, y > f(x)\}$  for every small  $\epsilon'' > 0$ , then  $\theta$  cannot be strictly decreasing on  $[1 - \epsilon', 1 + \epsilon']$ . So we can take a continuous function  $g : [a, a + \epsilon] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  for some small  $\epsilon > 0$ , such that the graph of  $g$  is contained in  $\partial \Omega_1$ ,  $g(a) = f(a)$ , and  $f(x) < g(x)$  for every  $x \in (a, a + \epsilon]$ . In the same way, we can take a continuous function  $h : [b - \epsilon, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that the graph of  $h$  is contained in  $\partial \Omega_1$ ,  $h(b) = f(b)$ , and  $f(x) < h(x)$  for every  $x \in [b - \epsilon, b)$ . See Figure 18.

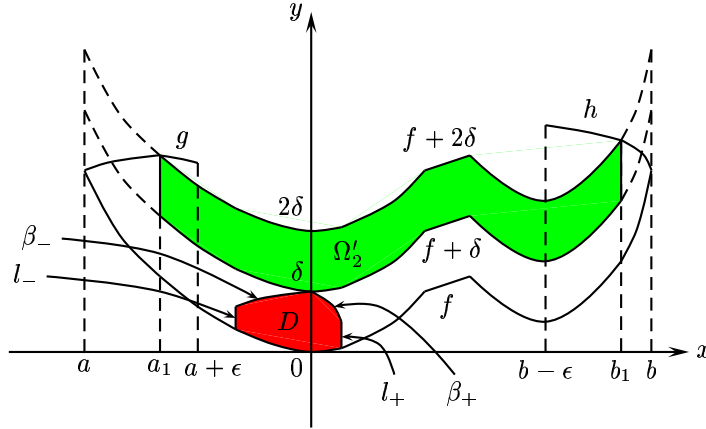


FIGURE 18.  $\Omega'_2$

With no loss of generality, assume  $a + \epsilon < 0 < b - \epsilon$  and  $f(0) = 0$ . Let  $F$ ,  $G$  and  $H$  be the graphs of the functions  $f$ ,  $g$  and  $h$  respectively. Let  $A = \partial \Omega_1 \setminus (F \cup G \cup H)$ . Since  $F$  and  $A$  are compact and  $F \cap A = \emptyset$ , we can take  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$2\delta < \min \{d(F, A), g(a + \epsilon) - f(a + \epsilon), h(b - \epsilon) - f(b - \epsilon)\}.$$



Let  $F_\delta, F_{2\delta}$  be the graphs of  $f + \delta, f + 2\delta$  respectively. Since  $2\delta < g(a + \epsilon) - f(a + \epsilon), h(b - \epsilon) - f(b - \epsilon)$ ,  $F_{2\delta}$  must meet both  $G$  and  $H$ . Let  $a_1 = \max \{p_x : p \in F_{2\delta} \cap G\}$ , and let  $b_1 = \min \{p_x : p \in F_{2\delta} \cap H\}$ . Then the set

$$\Omega'_2 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a_1 \leq x \leq b_1, f(x) + \delta \leq y \leq f(x) + 2\delta\}$$

is a simply-connected regular  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain, and  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega'_2$  are in contact position to each other. It is also easy to see that  $\Omega'_2$  is semi-convex.

Let  $\Omega_2 = -\Omega'_2 + (0, \delta)$ , and let  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$ . Clearly,  $\Omega_2$  is also semi-convex. Define  $\beta_- : [a, a_1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\beta_+ : [b_1, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_-(t) &= (t, g(t)) - (a_1, g(a_1)) + (0, \delta), \quad t \in [a, a_1], \\ \beta_+(t) &= (t, h(t)) - (b_1, h(b_1)) + (0, \delta), \quad t \in [b_1, b]. \end{aligned}$$

If  $\beta_-$  does not meet  $F$ , then let  $l_-$  be the line segment that starts from  $\beta_-(a)$  and goes in the direction of  $(0, -1)$  until it meets  $F$ . Also, if  $\beta_+$  does not meet  $F$ , then let  $l_+$  be the line segment that starts from  $\beta_+(b)$  and goes in the direction of  $(0, -1)$  until it meets  $F$ . Note that  $a + \epsilon < 0 < b - \epsilon$ . Let  $D$  be the simply-connected regular  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain which is enclosed by the curves  $F, \beta_-, \beta_+$  (and  $l_-, l_+$  if needed), and let  $\beta : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial D$  be a closed curve which traverses  $\partial D$  once in the standard orientation of  $D$ . Now note that  $(-\Omega_2 + p) \cap \Omega_1 \neq \emptyset$  for every  $p \in \partial D$ . So  $\beta(t) \in \Omega$  for every  $t \in [0, 1]$  by Lemma 6.3 (1). On the other hand, note that  $-\Omega_2 + (0, \frac{1}{2}\delta) = \Omega'_2 - (0, \frac{1}{2}\delta)$  has no intersections with  $\Omega_1$ . So  $(0, \frac{1}{2}\delta) \notin \Omega$  again by Lemma 6.3 (1). Since  $(0, \frac{1}{2}\delta) \in \text{int} D$ , we have  $\text{Ind}_\beta((0, \frac{1}{2}\delta)) = 1$ . Now suppose  $\Omega$  is simply-connected. Then  $\text{Ind}_{\tilde{\beta}}(p) = 0$  for every  $p \notin \Omega$  and every closed curve  $\tilde{\beta}$  in  $\Omega$ . So we have  $\text{Ind}_\beta((0, \frac{1}{2}\delta)) = 0$ . This is a contradiction, and we conclude that  $\Omega$  is not simply-connected, which completes the proof.  $\square$

*Remark 8.1.* Theorem 8.1 does not guarantee that there exists a *convex* domain for every regular non-semi-convex domain, such that their Minkowski sum is not simply-connected. In fact, this is false; Let  $\Omega$  be the domain depicted in Figure 12 (left). The Minkowski sum of  $\Omega$  and any convex domain is simply-connected. This can be easily seen from the fact that there should be a ‘trapping region’ in order for a Minkowski sum to be non-simply-connected.

Note that the domain  $\Omega_2$  in the proof of Theorem 9.2 is of a special shape, which is not always shared by every semi-convex domain. Since these domains play an important role in Section 9, we give a name to them:

**Definition 8.1. (Flag Domain)**

A simply-connected regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domain  $\Omega$  is called a *flag domain*, if there exists a piecewise  $C^1$  function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that:

- (1)  $-\infty < f'(x+), f'(x-) < \infty$  for every  $x \in [a, b]$ .
- (2) For some rigid motion in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ,

$$\Omega = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a \leq x \leq b, f(x) \leq y \leq f(x) + d\}$$

for some  $d > 0$ .

See Figure 20 for an example of flag domains. It is easy to see that a flag domain is semi-convex, but not vice versa. Note that the domain  $\Omega_2$  in Theorem 9.2 is a flag domain. Thus we have the following statement which is stronger than Theorem 9.2:

**Theorem 8.2.** *Let  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{C}_c^{1:1}$  be closed under restriction, and let  $\Omega_1$  be a regular  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain which is not semi-convex. Then there exists a flag  $\mathcal{C}$ -domain  $\Omega_2$  such that the Minkowski sum  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$  is not simply-connected.*

## 9. CLOSEDNESS OF SEMI-CONVEXITY

In this section, we show that the Minkowski sum of two semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is again a semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain for any Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ . Thus the set of all semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is closed under the Minkowski sum.

We start with some basic observations:

**Lemma 9.1.** *Let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be two simply-connected regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1:1}$ -domains such that  $\Omega_1 \subset \Omega_2$ , and let  $p \in \partial\Omega_1 \cap \partial\Omega_2$ ,  $q_i \in \partial\Omega_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$  with  $q_2 \neq p$ . For  $i = 1, 2$ , let  $\gamma_i : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial\Omega_i$  be continuous maps such that  $\gamma_i(0) = p$ ,  $\gamma_i(1) = q_i$ , and let  $\beta : [0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega_2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_1$  be a continuous map such that  $\beta(0) = q_1$ ,  $\beta(1) = q_2$ , and either  $\beta$  is constant or  $\beta([0, 1]) \subset \Omega_2 \setminus \Omega_1$ . Suppose there exists a homotopy  $H : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_1$*

such that  $H(t, 0) = \gamma_1(t)$ ,  $H(t, 1) = \gamma_2(t)$  for  $t \in [0, 1]$ , and  $H(0, s) = p$ ,  $H(1, s) = \beta(s)$  for  $s \in [0, 1]$ . Then  $O_{\Omega_1}(\gamma_1) \cdot O_{\Omega_2}(\gamma_2) \neq -$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\tilde{\gamma}_2 : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial\Omega_2$  be a one-to-one continuous map such that  $\tilde{\gamma}_2(0) = p$ ,  $\tilde{\gamma}_2(1) = q_2$ , and  $O_{\Omega_2}(\tilde{\gamma}_2) = +$ . Let  $\tilde{\gamma}_1 : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial\Omega_1$  be a continuous map such that  $\tilde{\gamma}_1(0) = p$ ,  $\tilde{\gamma}_1(1) = q_1$ ,  $O_{\Omega_1}(\tilde{\gamma}_1) \neq -$ ,  $\tilde{\gamma}_1|_{[0, 1]}$  is either one-to-one or constant. Clearly, we can find a homotopy  $\tilde{H} : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_1$ , such that  $\tilde{H}(t, 0) = \tilde{\gamma}_1(t)$ ,  $\tilde{H}(t, 1) = \tilde{\gamma}_2(t)$  for every  $t \in [0, 1]$ , and  $\tilde{H}(0, s) = p$ ,  $\tilde{H}(1, s) = \beta(s)$  for every  $s \in [0, 1]$ . For  $i = 1, 2$ , let  $\nu_i : [0, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the continuous function such that  $\nu_i(0) = 0$ , and  $\mu_i(\nu_i(t)) = (\tilde{\gamma}_i \cdot \overline{\gamma_i})(t)$  for  $t \in [0, 2]$ , where  $\mu_i : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \partial\Omega_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  be covering maps in the standard orientation of  $\partial\Omega_i$  with the period 1, such that  $\mu_i(0) = p$ . See Section 5 for the definition of  $\overline{\gamma}$  for a curve  $\gamma$ .

Clearly, we have  $0 \leq \nu_1(1) \leq 1$  and  $0 < \nu_2(1) < 1$ . Note also that the two closed curves  $\tilde{\gamma}_1 \cdot \overline{\gamma_1}$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}_2 \cdot \overline{\gamma_2}$  are homotopic in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_1$ . So we have  $\text{Ind}_{\tilde{\gamma}_1 \cdot \overline{\gamma_1}}(0) = \text{Ind}_{\tilde{\gamma}_2 \cdot \overline{\gamma_2}}(0)$ , where we assumed  $0 \in \text{int}\Omega_1$  with no loss of generality. Note that  $\text{Ind}_{\tilde{\gamma}_i \cdot \overline{\gamma_i}}(0) = \nu_i(2)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . So  $\nu_1(2) = \nu_2(2) \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Thus the assertion follows, since  $O_{\Omega_i}(\gamma_i)$  is the sign of  $\nu_i(1) - \nu_i(2)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 9.2.** *Let  $\Omega$  be a simply-connected regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domain. Let  $(p_1, \mathbf{n}_1)$  and  $(p_2, \mathbf{n}_2)$  be two points in  $\partial^v\Omega$  such that  $\mathbf{n}_1 = -\mathbf{n}_2$ . Suppose*

$$\Omega \cap (\{p_1 + t \cdot \mathbf{n}_1 \mid t > 0\} \cup \{p_2 + t \cdot \mathbf{n}_2 \mid t > 0\}) = \emptyset.$$

*Then  $\Theta(\phi) = \pi$  for any one-to-one continuous map  $\phi : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega$ ,  $\phi(t) = (\gamma(t), \mathbf{n}(t))$  such that  $\phi(0) = (p_1, \mathbf{n}_1)$ ,  $\phi(1) = (p_2, \mathbf{n}_2)$  and  $O_\Omega(\phi) = +$ .*

*Proof.* With no loss of generality, we assume that  $\mathbf{n}_1 = (1, 0)$ . Since  $\Omega$  is bounded, there exist  $a_1 < a_2$  and  $b_1 < b_2$  such that  $\Omega \subset \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a_1 < x < a_2, b_1 < y < b_2\}$ . See Figure 19.

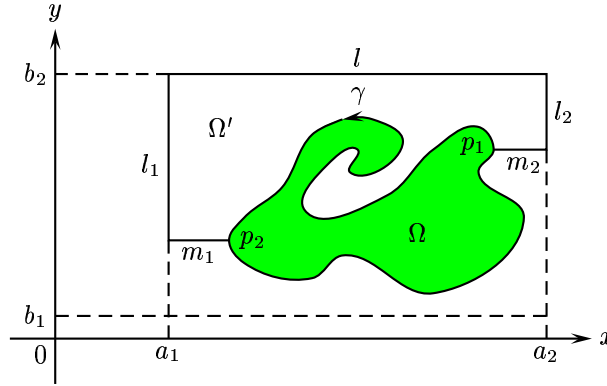


FIGURE 19. Figure for Lemma 9.2

Let  $l_1 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x = a_1, (p_2)_y \leq y \leq b_2\}$ , and let  $l_2 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x = a_2, (p_1)_y \leq y \leq b_2\}$ . Let  $m_1 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a_1 \leq x \leq (p_2)_x, y = (p_2)_y\}$ , and let  $m_2 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid (p_1)_x \leq x \leq a_2, y = (p_1)_y\}$ . Let  $l = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a_1 \leq x \leq a_2, y = b_2\}$ . By the assumptions, it is easy to see that the curve  $\gamma$  and the line segments  $m_2, l_2, l, l_1, m_1$  constitute the boundary of a simply-connected regular  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domain, which we call  $\Omega'$ . Let  $\psi : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega'$  be a one-to-one continuous map such that  $\psi(0) = (p_1, (0, -1))$ ,  $\psi(1) = (p_2, (0, -1))$  and  $O_{\Omega'}(\psi) = +$ . It is easy to see that  $\Theta(\psi) = 2\pi$ . By Lemma 5.2 (1), we have  $\Theta(\psi) + \frac{\pi}{2} - \Theta(\phi) + \frac{\pi}{2} = 2\pi$ . Thus  $\Theta(\phi) = \pi$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 9.3.** *Let  $\Omega_1$  be a flag  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domain, and let  $\Omega_2$  be a semi-convex  $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ -domain. Suppose that  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  are in contact position to each other, and that  $V$  is a bounded connected component of  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus (\Omega_1 \cup \Omega_2)$ . Then for any  $p_1 \in \partial V \setminus \partial\Omega_2$ , there exist  $p_2 \in \partial V \setminus \partial\Omega_1$  and a continuous curve  $\beta : [0, 1] \rightarrow \overline{V}$ , such that  $\beta(0) = p_1$ ,  $\beta(1) = p_2$ ,  $\beta((0, 1)) \subset V$ , and  $(\Omega_1 + \beta(u) - \beta(0)) \cap \Omega_2 \neq \emptyset$  for every  $u \in [0, 1]$ .*

*Proof.* With no loss of generality, we assume that

$$\Omega_1 = \{(x, y) \mid f(x) \leq y \leq f(x) + d, |x| \leq 1\},$$

for some piecewise  $C^1$  function  $f : [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $F$  and  $F_d$  be the graphs of the functions  $f$  and  $f + d$  respectively, and let  $l_-$ ,  $l_+$  be the line segments (without end points) joining  $(-1, f(-1))$  and

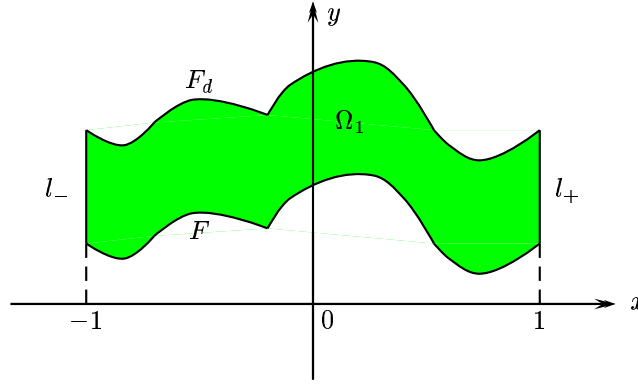


FIGURE 20. Flag Domain

$(-1, f(-1) + d)$ ,  $(1, f(1))$  and  $(1, f(1) + d)$  respectively. See Figure 20. Note that  $\partial\Omega_1 = F \cup F_d \cup l_- \cup l_+$ . If  $p_1 \in F$  (resp.,  $p_1 \in F_d$ ), then take  $p_2 \in \partial V \setminus \partial\Omega_1$  such that  $(p_2)_x = (p_1)_x$  and  $(p_2)_y = \max\{p_y : p \in \partial V \setminus \partial\Omega_1, p_x = (p_1)_x, p_y < (p_1)_y\}$  (resp.,  $(p_2)_y = \min\{p_y : p \in \partial V \setminus \partial\Omega_1, p_x = (p_1)_x, p_y > (p_1)_y\}$ ). If  $p_1 \in l_-$  (resp.,  $p_1 \in l_+$ ), we take  $p_2 \in \partial V \setminus \partial\Omega_1$  such that  $(p_2)_y = (p_1)_y$  and  $(p_2)_x = \max\{p_x : p \in \partial V \setminus \partial\Omega_1, p_y = (p_1)_y, p_x < (p_1)_x\}$  (resp.,  $(p_2)_x = \min\{p_x : p \in \partial V \setminus \partial\Omega_1, p_y = (p_1)_y, p_x > (p_1)_x\}$ ). For any case, we define  $\beta(u) = (1 - u)p_1 + up_2$  for  $u \in [0, 1]$ . It is clear that  $\beta(0) = p_1$ ,  $\beta(1) = p_2$ ,  $\beta([0, 1]) \subset \bar{V}$ , and  $\beta((0, 1)) \subset V$ .

Now we only have to show that  $(\Omega_1 + \beta(u) - \beta(0)) \cap \Omega_2 \neq \emptyset$  for every  $u \in [0, 1]$ . For  $i = 1, 2$ , let  $\phi_i : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v\Omega_i$ ,  $\phi_i(t) = (\gamma_i(t), \mathbf{n}_i(t))$  be a one-to-one continuous map such that  $O_{\Omega_i}(\phi_i) = +$ ,  $\gamma_i([0, 1]) = \partial V \cap \partial\Omega_i$ ,  $\phi_i(0) = (\gamma_i(0), \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_i}^+(\gamma_i(0)))$ ,  $\phi_i(1) = (\gamma_i(1), \mathbf{n}_{\Omega_i}^-(\gamma_i(1)))$ . Note that  $\Omega_1$  is semi-convex, since a flag domain is semi-convex. So by Lemma 5.4 (2), we have  $-\pi \leq \Theta(\phi_i) \leq \pi$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . From this, it is easy to see that at least one of  $F$ ,  $F_d$ ,  $l_-$ ,  $l_+$  has no intersections with  $\gamma_1([0, 1])$ , and if  $\gamma_1([0, 1])$  has an intersection with one of  $l_+$  or  $l_-$ , then it does not have intersections with the other. Thus, by symmetry, it is sufficient to consider the following four cases when  $\gamma_1([0, 1])$  intersects only (1)  $F$ , (2)  $l_-$ , (3)  $F$  and  $l_-$ , (4)  $F$ ,  $l_-$  and  $F_d$ . See Figure 21.

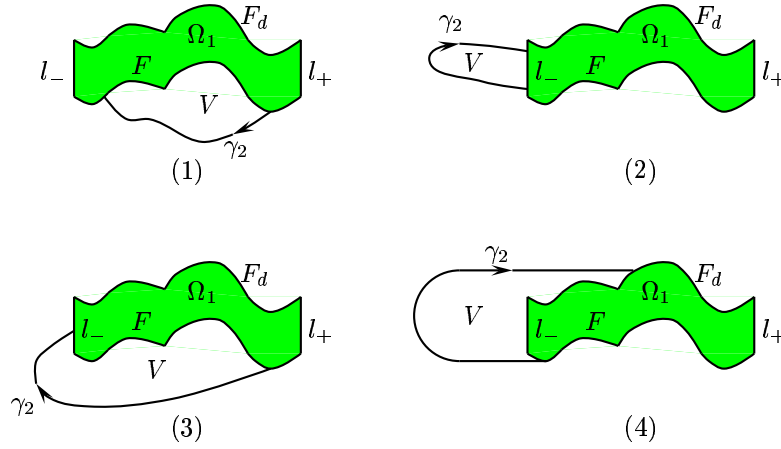


FIGURE 21. Four Cases of Contact Positions

First consider case (1). Let  $U = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \gamma_1(0)_x \leq x \leq \gamma_1(1)_x, y \leq f(x)\}$ . Suppose there does not exist  $t'_1$  nor  $t'_2$  in  $[0, 1]$  such that  $\gamma_2([0, t'_1]) \subset U$ ,  $\gamma_2(t'_1)_x = \gamma_1(0)_x$ , and  $\gamma_2([t'_2, 1]) \subset U$ ,  $\gamma_2(t'_2)_x = \gamma_1(1)_x$ . Then it is easy to see that there exist  $0 < t_1 < t_2 < 1$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $\mathbf{n}_2(t_1) = -\mathbf{n}_2(t_2) = (-1, 0)$ ,  $\Theta(\phi_1|_{[t_1-\epsilon, t_1]})$ ,  $\Theta(\phi_1|_{[t_2, t_2+\epsilon]}) < 0$ , and  $\bar{V} \cap \{\gamma_2(t_i) - u \cdot \mathbf{n}_2(t_i) \mid u > 0\} = \emptyset$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . By applying Lemma 9.2 to  $\bar{V}$ , we have  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_1, t_2]}) = -\pi$ . So  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_1-\epsilon, t_2+\epsilon]}) < -\pi$ , which is impossible since  $\Omega_2$  is semi-convex. Thus at least one of  $t'_1$  and  $t'_2$  above should exist. Then we can see easily that  $(\Omega_1 + \beta(u) - \beta(0)) \cap \Omega_2 \neq \emptyset$  for every  $u \in [0, 1]$ .

Case (2) can be treated with the same argument as in (1). Consider case (3). Note that the case when  $\gamma_1(1) = (-1, f(-1))$  can be treated by the same method as for case (2). So we assume  $\gamma_1(1) \neq (-1, f(-1))$ . Suppose  $p_1 \in F$ . Let  $U = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid -1 \leq x \leq \gamma_1(1)_x, y \leq f(x)\}$ . Suppose there does not exist  $t'_1 \in [0, 1]$  such that  $\gamma_2([0, t'_1]) \subset U$ ,  $\gamma_2(t'_1)_x = -1$ . Then it is easy to see that there exist  $0 < t_1 < t_2 < 1$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $\mathbf{n}_2(t_1) = -\mathbf{n}_2(t_2) = (-1, 0)$ ,  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_1-\epsilon, t_1]})$ ,  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_2, t_2+\epsilon]}) < 0$ , and  $\overline{V} \cap \{\gamma_2(t_i) - u \cdot \mathbf{n}_2(t_i) \mid u > 0\} = \emptyset$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . By Lemma 9.2, we have  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_1, t_2]}) = -\pi$ . So we have  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_1-\epsilon, t_2+\epsilon]}) < -\pi$ , which is impossible since  $\Omega_2$  is semi-convex. Thus there should exist  $t'_1 \in [0, 1]$  as above, and it follows easily that  $(\Omega_1 + \beta(u) - \beta(0)) \cap \Omega_2 \neq \emptyset$  for every  $u \in [0, 1]$ .

Suppose  $p_1 \in l_-$ . Let  $U_1$  be the (closed) region bounded by  $\{\gamma_1(0) + u \cdot (-1, 0) \mid u \geq 0\}$ ,  $\{\gamma_1(1) + u \cdot (0, -1) \mid u \geq 0\}$  and  $\gamma_1$ , which does not contain  $\Omega_1$ . Let  $U_2 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x \leq -1, f(-1) \leq y \leq \gamma_1(0)_y\}$ . Suppose there does not exist  $t'_1$  nor  $t'_2$  in  $[0, 1]$  such that  $\gamma_2([0, t'_1]) \subset U_1$ ,  $\gamma_2(t)_y \geq \gamma_1(1)_y$  for every  $t \in [0, t'_1]$ ,  $\gamma_2(t'_1)_y = \gamma_1(0)_y$ , and  $\gamma_2([t'_2, 1]) \subset U_2$ ,  $\gamma_2(t'_2)_y = f(-1)$ . Then it is easy to see that there exist  $0 < t_1 < t_2 < 1$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $\mathbf{n}_2(t_1) = -\mathbf{n}_2(t_2) = (0, 1)$ ,  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_1-\epsilon, t_1]})$ ,  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_2, t_2+\epsilon]}) < 0$ , and  $\overline{V} \cap \{\gamma_2(t_i) - u \cdot \mathbf{n}_2(t_i) \mid u > 0\} = \emptyset$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . By Lemma 9.2, we have  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_1, t_2]}) = -\pi$ . It follows that  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_1-\epsilon, t_2+\epsilon]}) < -\pi$ , which is impossible since  $\Omega_2$  is semi-convex. So at least one of the above  $t'_1$  and  $t'_2$  should exist. Now it is easy to see that  $(\Omega_1 + \beta(u) - \beta(0)) \cap \Omega_2 \neq \emptyset$  for every  $u \in [0, 1]$ .

Finally, consider case (4). Note that the cases when  $\gamma_1(0) = (-1, f(-1) + d)$  or  $\gamma_1(1) = (-1, f(-1))$  can be treated with the same methods as for cases (2) and (3). So assume  $\gamma_1(0) \neq (-1, f(-1) + d)$  and  $\gamma_1(1) \neq (-1, f(-1))$ . By using the same argument for case (3) when  $p_1 \in F$ , we can see that  $(\Omega_1 + \beta(u) - \beta(0)) \cap \Omega_2 \neq \emptyset$  for every  $u \in [0, 1]$ , if  $p \in F \cup F_d$ . Suppose  $p \in l_-$ . Let  $U_3$  be the (closed) region bounded by  $\{\gamma_1(1) + u \cdot (0, -1) \mid u \geq 0\}$ ,  $\{(-1, f(-1) + d) + u \cdot (-1, 0) \mid u \geq 0\}$  and  $\gamma_1([0, 1]) \cap (F \cup l_-)$ , which does not contain  $\Omega_1$ . Let  $U_4$  be the (closed) region bounded by  $\{\gamma_1(0) + u \cdot (0, 1) \mid u \geq 0\}$ ,  $\{(-1, f(-1)) + u \cdot (-1, 0) \mid u \geq 0\}$  and  $\gamma_1([0, 1]) \cap (F_d \cup l_-)$ , which does not contain  $\Omega_1$ . Suppose there does not exist  $t'_1$  nor  $t'_2$  in  $[0, 1]$ , such that  $\gamma_2([0, t'_1]) \subset U_3$ ,  $\gamma_2(t)_y \geq \gamma_1(1)_y$  for every  $t \in [0, t'_1]$ ,  $\gamma_2(t'_1)_y = f(-1) + d$ , and  $\gamma_2([t'_2, 1]) \subset U_4$ ,  $\gamma_2(t)_y \leq \gamma_1(0)_y$  for every  $t \in [t'_2, 1]$ ,  $\gamma_2(t'_2)_y = f(-1)$ . Then it is easy to see that there exist  $0 < t_1 < t_2 < 1$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $\mathbf{n}_2(t_1) = -\mathbf{n}_2(t_2) = (0, 1)$ ,  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_1-\epsilon, t_1]})$ ,  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_2, t_2+\epsilon]}) < 0$ , and  $\overline{V} \cap \{\gamma_2(t_i) - u \cdot \mathbf{n}_2(t_i) \mid u > 0\} = \emptyset$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . By Lemma 9.2, we have  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_1, t_2]}) = -\pi$ , and so  $\Theta(\phi_2|_{[t_1-\epsilon, t_2+\epsilon]}) < -\pi$ . But this is impossible since  $\Omega_2$  is semi-convex. So at least one of the above  $t'_1$  and  $t'_2$  should exist. Now it is easy to see that  $(\Omega_1 + \beta(u) - \beta(0)) \cap \Omega_2 \neq \emptyset$  for every  $u \in [0, 1]$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 9.1. (Semi-convex + Flag  $\Rightarrow$  Semi-convex)**

*For any Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ , the Minkowski sum of a semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain and a flag  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain is a semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain.*

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class. Let  $\Omega_1$  be a flag  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain, and let  $\Omega_2$  be a semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain. With no loss of generality, we can assume that  $0 \in \Omega_1, \Omega_2$ . Since a flag domain is semi-convex, the Minkowski sum  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$  is a simply-connected regular  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain by Theorem 7.2. Suppose  $\Omega$  is not semi-convex. Then we can take a one-to-one continuous map  $\tilde{\phi} : [0, 1] \rightarrow \partial^v \Omega$ ,  $\tilde{\phi}(t) = (\tilde{\gamma}(t), \tilde{\mathbf{n}}(t))$  such that  $O_\Omega(\tilde{\phi}) = +$  and  $\Theta(\tilde{\phi}) < -\pi$ . We can assume with no loss of generality that  $\tilde{\gamma}(0)$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}(1)$  are flat points. Now we can take the maps  $\phi, \phi_i, \phi^k, \phi_i^k, \psi^k, \psi_i^k$  associated to  $\tilde{\phi}$  as in Section 7.2. We also use all the related notations therein.

Let  $\mu : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \partial \Omega$  and  $\mu_i : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \partial \Omega_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$  be covering maps in the standard orientations of  $\partial \Omega$  and  $\partial \Omega_i$  respectively with the period 1, such that  $\mu(0) = \gamma(0)$  and  $\mu_i(0) = \gamma_i(0)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Then there exist continuous functions  $\nu, \nu_1, \nu_2 : [0, 2n-1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\nu(0) = \nu_1(0) = \nu_2(0) = 0$  and  $\gamma = \mu \circ \nu$ ,  $\gamma_i = \mu_i \circ \nu_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Note that such  $\nu$  and  $\nu_i$ 's are unique, and  $O_\Omega(\gamma|_{[a,b]})$  and  $O_{\Omega_i}(\gamma_i|_{[a,b]})$  are the signs of  $\nu(b) - \nu(a)$  and  $\nu_i(b) - \nu_i(a)$  respectively for  $i = 1, 2$ , for any  $[a, b] \subset [0, 2n-1]$ .

Note that  $\Theta(\tilde{\phi}) = \Theta(\phi) = \Theta(\phi_1) = \Theta(\phi_2)$ . Since  $\Omega_1$  is semi-convex and  $\Theta(\phi_1) < -\pi$ , we should have  $O_{\Omega_1}(\phi_1) = -$ . It follows that  $O_{\Omega_1}(\gamma_1) = -$ , since  $\Theta(\phi_1) < -\pi$ . So  $\nu_1(2n-1) < 0$ . Note that  $\nu_1$  is either non-decreasing or non-increasing on the interval  $[k-1, k]$  for  $k = 1, \dots, 2n-1$ . So it is easy to see that there exist  $0 = a_0 \leq b_0 < a_1 < \dots < b_{m-1} < a_m \leq b_m = 2n-1$  such that  $\nu_1$  is non-increasing on  $[a_j, b_j]$  for  $j = 0, \dots, m$ , and  $\nu_1(a_{j+1}) - \nu_1(b_j) = 0$  for  $j = 0, \dots, m-1$ . Note that, from the constructions in Section 7, we can assume that  $O_\Omega(\gamma|_{[b_j, a_{j+1}]} ) = +$ , and at least one of  $\gamma(b_j) = \gamma_1(b_j) + \gamma_2(b_j)$  and  $\gamma(a_{j+1}) = \gamma_1(a_{j+1}) + \gamma_2(a_{j+1})$  is true for  $j = 0, \dots, m-1$ . We can also assume that  $\nu_2$  is non-decreasing on  $[a_j, b_j]$  for  $j = 0, \dots, m$ .

Suppose  $\gamma(c) \neq \gamma_1(c) + \gamma_2(c)$  for some  $c = a_0, b_0, \dots, a_m, b_m$ . Note that  $\Omega_2$  and  $-\Omega_1 + \gamma(c)$  are in contact position to each other by Lemma 6.3 (3). Since  $\gamma(c) \neq \gamma_1(c) + \gamma_2(c)$ , it follows that, for some  $k$ ,  $\gamma_i(c)$  is on  $\eta_i^k$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Let  $V$  be the connected component of the set  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus (\Omega_2 \cup (-\Omega_1 + \gamma(c)))$  such that

$-\gamma_1(c) + \gamma(c) \in \bar{V}$ . Note that  $V$  is bounded by  $\eta_2^k$  and  $\tilde{\eta}_1^k$ . By applying Lemma 9.3 to  $-\Omega_1 + \gamma(c)$  and  $\Omega_2$ , we have a continuous curve  $\beta_c : [0, 1] \rightarrow \bar{V}$  such that  $\beta_c(0) = -\gamma_1(c) + \gamma(c)$ ,  $\beta_c(1) \in \partial V \setminus \partial(-\Omega_1 + \gamma(c))$ ,  $\beta_c((0, 1)) \subset V$ , and  $(-\Omega_1 + \gamma(c) + \beta_c(u) - \beta_c(0)) \cap \Omega_2 \neq \emptyset$  for every  $u \in [0, 1]$ . Now from the constructions in Section 7, it is easy to see that we can take  $\gamma_2$  (more exactly,  $\eta_2^k$ 's) and  $A_2^k$ 's such that:

- (1) if  $\gamma(c) = \gamma_1(c) + \gamma_2(c)$ , then  $P_2(c, s) = \gamma_2(c)$  for  $s \in [0, 1]$ ,
  - (2) if  $\gamma(c) \neq \gamma_1(c) + \gamma_2(c)$ , then  $P_2(c, s) = \beta_c(s)$  for  $s \in [0, 1]$ ,
- for each  $c = a_0, b_0, \dots, a_m, b_m$ .

Now we will show  $\nu_2(a_{j+1}) - \nu_2(b_j) \geq 0$  for  $j = 0, \dots, m-1$ . Fix  $j = 0, \dots, m-1$ , and let  $b = b_j$ ,  $a_{j+1} = a$ . Note that  $b < a$ ,  $O_\Omega(\gamma|_{[b,a]}) = +$ , and at least one of  $\gamma(b) = \gamma_1(b) + \gamma_2(b)$  and  $\gamma(a) = \gamma_1(a) + \gamma_2(a)$  is true. Suppose  $\gamma(b) = \gamma_1(b) + \gamma_2(b)$ . Let  $\check{\Omega}_1 = \Omega_1 - \gamma_1(b)$ , and let  $\check{\Omega} = \Omega - \gamma_1(b)$ . Then  $\check{\Omega} = \check{\Omega}_1 + \Omega_2$ , and  $\Omega_2 \subset \check{\Omega}$  since  $0 \in \check{\Omega}_1$ . Define  $\check{\gamma}_1(t) = \gamma_1(t) - \gamma_1(b)$  and  $\check{\gamma}(t) = \gamma(t) - \gamma_1(b)$  for  $t \in [0, 2n-1]$ . Then, clearly we have  $O_{\check{\Omega}}(\check{\gamma}|_{[b,a]}) = O_\Omega(\gamma|_{[b,a]}) = +$ ,  $O_{\check{\Omega}_1}(\check{\gamma}_1|_{[b,a]}) = O_{\Omega_1}(\gamma_1|_{[b,a]}) = 0$ , and  $\gamma_2(b) = \check{\gamma}(b)$ . Define  $\check{Q}_2(t, s) = I_{\check{\gamma}(t)} \left( H_{\check{\Omega}_1;0} (I_{\check{\gamma}(t)} (P_2(t, 1)), s) \right)$  for  $(t, s) \in [0, 2n-1] \times [0, 1]$ , and let  $\check{H}_2 = \frac{\check{Q}_2}{P_2}$ . Then it is easy to see that  $\check{H}_2$  is well-defined and continuous,  $\gamma_2|_{[b,a]}$  is homotopic to  $\check{\gamma}|_{[b,a]}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \text{int}\Omega_2$  via  $\check{H}_2|_{[b,a] \times [0,2]}$ , and  $\check{H}_2(b, s) = \gamma_2(b)$  for  $s \in [0, 2]$ . Suppose  $\gamma(a) = \gamma_1(a) + \gamma_2(a)$ . Then we also have  $\check{H}_2(a, s) = \gamma_2(a)$  for  $s \in [0, 2]$ . So by Lemma 9.1, we have  $O_{\Omega_2}(\gamma_2|_{[b,a]}) \neq -$ , which implies  $\nu_2(a) - \nu_2(b) \geq 0$ . Suppose  $\gamma(a) \neq \gamma_1(a) + \gamma_2(a)$ . Then we can check that  $P_2(a, s) = \bar{\beta}_a(s)$  and  $\check{Q}_2(a, s) = \bar{\beta}_a(1) = -\gamma_1(a) + \gamma(a)$  for  $s \in [0, 1]$ . So  $\check{H}_2(a, (0, 2]) \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \Omega_2$ . Since  $\nu_1(b) = \nu_1(a)$  (hence  $\gamma_1(b) = \gamma_1(a)$ ) and  $\beta_a(0) = -\gamma_1(a) + \gamma(a)$ , we have  $-\Omega_1 + \gamma(a) + \beta_a(u) - \beta_a(0) = -\check{\Omega}_1 + \beta_a(u)$  for  $u \in [0, 1]$ . So  $(-\check{\Omega}_1 + \beta_a(u)) \cap \Omega_2 \neq \emptyset$  for  $u \in [0, 1]$ , and hence we have  $\beta_a([0, 1]) \subset \check{\Omega}$  by Lemma 6.3 (1). So  $\check{H}_2(a, (0, 2]) \subset \check{\Omega} \setminus \Omega_2$ . Thus by applying Lemma 9.1 again, we have  $O_{\Omega_2}(\gamma_2|_{[b,a]}) \neq -$ , which implies that  $\nu_2(a) - \nu_2(b) \geq 0$ . In the same way, we can show that  $\nu_2(a) - \nu_2(b) \geq 0$ , when  $\gamma(b) \neq \gamma_1(b) + \gamma_2(b)$  and  $\gamma(a) = \gamma_1(a) + \gamma_2(a)$ . Thus we conclude that  $\nu_2(a_{j+1}) - \nu_2(b_j) \geq 0$  for  $j = 0, \dots, m-1$ .

Now since  $\nu_2$  is non-decreasing on  $[a_j, b_j]$  for  $j = 0, \dots, m$ , we should have  $\nu_2(2n-1) \geq 0$ , and hence  $O_{\Omega_2}(\gamma_2) \neq -$ . Note that  $O_{\Omega_2}(\gamma_2) \neq 0$ , since  $\Theta(\phi_2) < -\pi$ . So  $O_{\Omega_2}(\gamma_2) = +$ . But this is impossible, since  $\Omega_2$  is semi-convex and  $\Theta(\phi_2) < -\pi$ . Thus we conclude that  $\Omega$  is semi-convex.  $\square$

Finally, we prove the main theorem of this section:

**Theorem 9.2. (Semi-convex + Semi-convex  $\Rightarrow$  Semi-convex)**

*For any Minkowski class  $\mathcal{M}$ , the Minkowski sum of two semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains is also a semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain.*

*Proof.* Let  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  be two semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains, and let  $\Omega = \Omega_1 + \Omega_2$  be their Minkowski sum. We know from Theorem 7.2 that  $\Omega$  is a simply-connected regular  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain. Suppose  $\Omega$  is not semi-convex. Then, by Theorem 8.2, there exists a flag  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain  $\Omega_3$  such that  $\Omega + \Omega_3$  is not simply-connected. By Theorem 9.1,  $\Omega_2 + \Omega_3$  is a semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain. So  $\Omega + \Omega_3 = \Omega_1 + (\Omega_2 + \Omega_3)$  is simply-connected by Theorem 7.2. This is a contradiction, and we conclude that  $\Omega$  is a semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domain.  $\square$

## 10. CONCLUSION

Here we briefly summarize the important results in this paper, and mention some further research directions. Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a Minkowski class. We denote the major classes of domains in this paper as follows:

- M** = The set of all  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains.
- D** = The set of all  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains homemorphic to the unit disk.
- S** = The set of all semi-convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains.
- F** = The set of all flag  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains.
- C** = The set of all convex  $\mathcal{M}$ -domains homemorphic to the unit disk.

The inclusion relations between them are shown in Figure 22.

The inclusions  $\mathbf{C} \subset \mathbf{S} \subset \mathbf{D} \subset \mathbf{M}$  and  $\mathbf{F} \subset \mathbf{S}$  are all proper. By Theorem 6.3, **M** is closed under the Minkowski sum. Let  $\mathcal{D}$  be the class of all subsets **X** of **D** such that  $A + B \in \mathbf{D}$  for every  $A, B \in \mathbf{X}$ . By Theorem 7.2, **S** is in  $\mathcal{D}$ , and is maximal in  $\mathcal{D}$  with respect to the inclusion by Theorem 8.1. In fact, **S** is the unique maximal element in  $\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{F}}$  by Theorem 8.2, where  $\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{F}} = \{\mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{D} \mid \mathbf{F} \subset \mathbf{X}\}$ . Finally, **S** is closed under the Minkowski sum by Theorem 9.2.

Now let us mention some further directions on the subject of semi-convexity. First, note that the semi-convexity is amenable to the algorithmic setting in that only the rotation of normal vectors needs to be

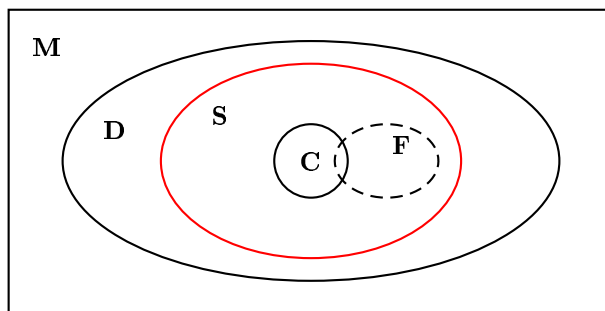


FIGURE 22. Relations between Classes of Domains

checked. Also, it is a natural generalization of the usual convexity. Usually, the computation of the Minkowski sum of general shapes can essentially be divided into a few steps:

1. Decompose the shapes into unions of simpler shapes, which are usually convex.
2. Select the simple parts which can contribute to the boundary of the Minkowski sum.
3. Do Minkowski sum operations on these selected parts.
4. Integrate the results to form the Minkowski sum boundary, and hence the Minkowski sum itself.

The most important reason for using convex shapes in Step 1 is that they are closed under the Minkowski sum. But in general, the number of the decomposed parts will be large since the convexity is very restrictive, and this results in the slow-down of the algorithms. So if we can use semi-convex shapes instead of convex ones, it would be possible to compute the Minkowski sum in a significantly more efficient way.

An immediate further research direction for the semi-convexity is the generalization of the semi-convexity to 3 or higher dimensions, which would be most needed in various applications. Also, note that the current definition of semi-convexity requires some differentiability of the boundary, *i.e.*,  $C^{1:1}$ . Compared to the fact that the convexity has no such *a priori* requirements, this may be considered as a severe restriction. So an important next step would be the removal of the regularity requirements from the definition of semi-convexity, which will be dealt with in [4] along with relationships of the semi-convexity with other notions such as visibility.

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MAX PLANCK INSTITUTE FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE, STUHLSATZENHAUSWEG 85, D-66123 SAARBRÜCKEN, GERMANY  
*E-mail address:* swchoi@mpi-sb.mpg.de