A certified algorithm for the InCircle predicate among ellipses

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Abstract

This paper examines the InCircle predicate among ellipses in the Euclidean plane, under the exact computation paradigm. The ellipses are non-intersecting and given in parametric representation. We present a subdivision-based algorithm and implement it in Maple and CORE.

1 Introduction

We study the InCircle predicate for the Voronoi diagram of ellipses. This is the hardest predicate for implementing the algorithm of [7] and has not been solved in the exact computation paradigm. The work coming closest to ours is [5]: The authors essentially trace the bisectors in order to compute the Voronoi cells of arbitrary curves up to machine precision. Their algorithm uses floating point arithmetic; they claim that their software works well in practice. Although they argue that their algorithm can be extended to exact arithmetic, they do not explain how. For instance, they do not discuss degenerate configurations. Our implementations are exact but can also run with any prescribed precision.

It seems hard, for the algebraic approach of [3], to yield a fast solution. All four predicates of the incremental algorithm [7] were studied in [4], including a certified subdivision-based algorithm for InCircle, implemented in Maple. In this paper, we offer a better implementation using the CORE library [6]. The algorithm “moves” on the border of parametrically defined ellipses. This avoids computing the Voronoi circle explicitly.

The Voronoi circle is specified at any desired accuracy. This is achieved by refining the interval expressing its 3 tangency points until the predicate can be decided; in fact, all tangency points are expressed as a function of one of them. Exactness is guaranteed by root separation bounds.

Let the length of the axes be 2α, 2β and (xc, yc) be the center. We use the parametric representation:

\[
\begin{align*}
    x(t) &= x_c - (\alpha(1 - w^2)t^2 + 4\beta wt - \alpha(1 - \alpha^2))/d \\
    y(t) &= y_c + 2(-\alpha wt^2 + \beta(1 - \beta^2)t + \alpha \phi)/d,
\end{align*}
\]

where \( d = (1 + w^2)(1 + t^2) \), \( t = \tan(\theta/2) \in (-\infty, \infty) \), \( \theta \) is the angle that traces the ellipse, \( w = \tan(\phi/2) \), and \( \phi \) is the rotation angle between the major and horizontal axes. We denote by \( E_t \) an ellipse parameterized by \( t \).

2 The bitangent circle

Lemma 1 Given 2 ellipses and a point on the first, there may exist up to 6 real bitangent circles, tangent at the specific point. This bound is tight. Only one such circle is external to both ellipses.

We call this unique external bitangent circle the Apollonius circle of the 2 ellipses, e.g. the third circle from the right in fig. 1 (left).

Given ellipses \( E_t, E_r \), the tangency points of any Apollonius circle lie inside their Convex Hull (CH). This offers a starting point to begin our search for the tangency point of the Voronoi circle within a continuous range on the boundary of an ellipse. Now, consider all bitangent circles to \( E_t, E_r \), tangent at point \( t \) of \( E_t \).

We shall compute \( \text{arc} \ (r_1, r_2) \) on \( E_r \) which contains only the tangency point of the Apollonius circle, isolating it from the tangency points of non-external bitangent circles. Consider all bitangent circles at \( t \). Also, consider the lines from \( t \) tangent to \( E_r \) at points \( r_1, r_2 \). They define two arcs on \( E_r \). Arc \( (r_1, r_2) \), whose interior points lie on the same side of line \( r_1r_2 \) as \( t \), is called a visible arc.

Visible arc \( (r_1, r_2) \) contains only tangency points of bitangent circles at \( t \), which are externally tangent to \( E_t \), but may be internally tangent to \( E_t \). They include the Apollonius circle of \( E_t, E_r \), tangent at \( t \in E_t \).

Figure 1: Left: The 6 bitangent circles. The Apollonius circle is the 4th from the left. Right: Starting intervals for \( t, r, s \) (and region of the Voronoi vertex)
Lemma 2 Given is a point \( P = (x(t), y(t)) \) on \( E_t \). Consider line \( \epsilon \), tangent at \( P \) (cf. fig. 2). If \( \epsilon \) does not intersect \( E_t \), then the visible arc contains a unique Apollonius circle. Otherwise, the endpoints of such an arc are: the intersection of \( \epsilon \) with \( E_t \) and the endpoint of the visible arc which lies on the opposite side of \( E_t \) with respect to \( \epsilon \).

Given ellipses \( E_t, E_r \) their bisector \( B(t, r) \) is a bivariate polynomial of degree 6 in \( t \) and 6 in \( r \). The above lemma provides an isolating interval for the unique root \( \tilde{r} \) of \( B(t, r) \), which lies on the visible arc of \( E_r \) with respect to some fixed \( t \). In other words, \( \tilde{r} \) corresponds to the Apollonius circle.

Given a point \((x(t), y(t))\) on \( E_t \), the squared radius of the Apollonius circle of \( E_t, E_r \) tangent to \( E_t \) at that point is denoted by \( f_{tr}(t) \). It follows that

\[
f_{tr}(t) := (v_1(t, \tilde{r}) - x(t))^2 + (v_2(t, \tilde{r}) - y(t))^2,
\]

where \( \tilde{r} \) is the root of the bisector that corresponds to the Apollonius circle, when we fix \( t \), and \((v_1, v_2)\) is the intersection of the normals at \( t \) and \( \tilde{r} \).

In the sequel, we assume that \( f_{ts}(t) \) is defined on a continuous interval \((a, b)\). The interval can also be of the form \((-\infty, a) \cup (b, \infty)\), but in this case the problem is identical or easier.

Lemma 3 Function \( f_{tr}(t) \) consists of two strictly monotone parts, one decreasing and one increasing.

We have not proved the function’s convexity, though this is implied by numerical examples.

Our overall algorithm maintains an interval that contains the tangency on \( E_t \). At every iteration, it picks some value for \( t \) within the interval and solves \( B(t, r) \) for finding \( \tilde{r} \), which was defined above. These values are used to determine the sign of \( S \), to be introduced below.

3 Deciding the predicate

The Voronoi circle is the circle which is externally bitangent to \( E_t, E_r \), and \( E_t, E_s \) at the same time. Its tangency point on \( E_t \) is defined by the condition:

\[
S_{etr}(t) = 0, \quad \text{where} \quad S_{etr}(t) = f_{tr}(t) - f_{ts}(t),
\]

where \( f_{tr} \) (and similarly \( f_{ts} \)) in the case of ellipses becomes

\[
f_{tr}(t) = \frac{1}{4} P_t(t) \left( \frac{A_{tr}(t, \tilde{r})}{(1 + t^2)(1 + r^2) D_{tr}(t, \tilde{r})} \right)^2.
\]

In the above equation, \( P_t(t) \) has no real roots, \( A_{tr} \) is a bivariate polynomial of degree 2 in \( t \) and 4 in \( r \) and \( D_{tr} \neq 0 \), unless the normals at \( t, \tilde{r} \) are parallel.

We factor \( S_{etr}(t) \) as follows:

\[
P(t) \cdot [Q_1(t, \tilde{r}, \tilde{s}) - Q_2(t, \tilde{r}, \tilde{s})] \cdot [Q_1(t, \tilde{r}, \tilde{s}) + Q_2(t, \tilde{r}, \tilde{s})]
\]

\[
4\left[ (1 + r^2)(1 + \tilde{r}^2)D_{tr}(t, \tilde{r})D_{ts}(t, \tilde{r}) \right]^4 \quad (1)
\]

We use a customized bisection to approximate a root of \( S_{etr}(t) \). We only need to determine the sign \( Q_1 - Q_2 \) and \( Q_1 + Q_2 \), since the rest of the terms in (1) are always positive. This way we avoid computing \( f \) explicitly.

We express the Voronoi circle of \( E_t, E_r, E_s \) by an interval containing \( t \), such that \((x(t), y(t))\) is the tangency point on \( E_t \).\(^1\) We start by the initial interval \([a, b]\) that contains the tangency point and subdivide it by bisection. The subdivision operator yields

\[
\begin{align*}
[a + \frac{b - a}{2}], & \quad \text{if} \ S_{tr}(a) S_{tr}(b) = 0, \\
[a, a + \frac{b - a}{2}], & \quad \text{if} \ S_{tr}(a) S_{tr}(\frac{a + b}{2}) < 0, \\
[a + \frac{b - a}{2}, b], & \quad \text{otherwise}.
\end{align*}
\]

\(^1\)This interval might contain tangency points of other non-external tritangent circles, but they don’t interfere with our approach, since it deals only with externally bitangent circles.
Note that there is no such case such as internal tangency. This is due to the fact that we deal only with externally tangent circles.

Clearly, there is a neighborhood $\mathcal{U}$ of $x$ where $\text{sgn}(S_{trh}(u)) = \text{sgn}(S_{trh}(x))$, $\forall u \in \mathcal{U}$. In our implementation, to find $\mathcal{U}$, it will suffice to separate the roots of $S_{trh}$.

We now establish the exactness of our algorithm. Consider system $\Delta_1(v_1, v_2, q) = \Delta_2(v_1, v_2, q) = \Delta_3(v_1, v_2, q) = q - v_1^2 - v_2^2 + s = 0$ [4], where $(v_1, v_2)$ is the center and $s$ the squared radius of the Voronoi circle. Let us eliminate $v_1, v_2, q$: the resultant $R(s)$ is of degree 184 in $s$ and has coefficient bit size $3 \cdot 56 \cdot \tau_\Delta = 168\tau_\Delta$. Here 56 equals the mixed volume of the system $\Delta_i, \Delta_j, q - v_1^2 - v_2^2 + s$, if we consider $s$ as a parameter, and $\tau_\Delta$ denotes the bit size of the coefficients of $\Delta_i$, where $1 \leq i, j \leq 3$ and $i \neq j$.

The minimum distance between two real roots of a polynomial $P$ of degree $d$ and bit size $\tau$ is $\text{sep}(P) \geq d^{-\frac{2(d+1)}{2(d+1)}} \cdot 2^{-\frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^r t}$ [9], thus the number of bits that we need in order to compute $s$ is no more than $1389 + 30744 \tau_\Delta$.

In order to compare two radii $s_1$ and $s_2$, which are roots of polynomials $R_1$ and $R_2$ respectively, we need a bound for $|s_1 - s_2|$. Since $|s_1 - s_2| \geq \text{sep}(R_1, R_2)$, where the polynomial $R_1 R_2$ has degree 368 and coefficient bit size $s + 336\tau_\Delta$, it follows that the number of bits needed is $1508 + 30324\tau_\Delta$. This is tight, because the system has optimal mixed volume [3].

In computing the implicit representation the bit size increases by a factor of 6. If the parametric input coefficients have $\tau$ bits, then $\tau_\Delta = 6\tau$. If the order of convergence of our method is $\phi$, then the number of iterations needed is $\log_\phi(1508 + 181944\tau)$.

### 4 Implementation and experiments

A reference implementation with parametric ellipses has been done in Maple 9. We have implemented a small algebraic number package that performs exact univariate real root isolation, comparison and sign evaluation of univariate (bivariate) expressions over one (two) algebraic number(s), using Sturm sequences and interval arithmetic over $Q$. We speed up the subdivision by noticing that $S_{trh}$ is strictly monotone in the starting interval $[a, b]$ and has a unique simple real root in it. So we use Brent’s method with theoretical convergence rate $\phi = 1.618$ [1]. Let $[a, b]$ be any interval and $m = \frac{a+b}{2}$. The new endpoint is $x = m + \frac{b-m}{2}$, where $R = \frac{S_{trh}(m)}{S_{trh}(a)}$ $S = \frac{S_{trh}(m)}{S_{trh}(a)}$, $T = \frac{S_{trh}(a)}{S_{trh}(b)}$, $P = S(T(R-T)(b-m) - (1-R)(m-a))$ and $Q = (T-1)(R-1)(S-1)$. If $x \notin [a, b]$ then the new estimation is $m$. However, in practice we observe a fast growth of bitsize, if we use this method with an exact number type, i.e. rationals.

Based on this reference implementation in Maple, we implemented the algorithm in C++ using CORE. While still in a preliminary stage, it is faster than the Maple implementation. In this case it is possible to certify our algorithm based on constructive root separation bounds e.g. [2, 10], which should be tighter than the static bounds now used. In this implementation, the input quantities are of type BigRat (rational numbers), while the endpoints of the interval that expresses the Voronoi circle are BigFloats (multi-precision floating point). Evaluation of $Q_1 \pm Q_2$ in (1) is performed using CORE::Expr constructs after converting $t$ from BigFloat to BigRat. This, along with $B(t, r)$ seem to be the most heavy computations, due to growth of bitsize. In a future improvement we will use guaranteed precision arithmetic with BigFloats. Another improvement will be to use information from previous iterations (where $t$ has fewer correct bits) in order to solve $B(t, r)$ and determine the sign of $Q_1$ and $Q_2$.

We performed several preliminary experiments with different triplets of ellipses and circles. We consider a query ellipse (circle) with its centre moving along a line and measure the time taken to decide its relative position wrt the Voronoi circle. Among the various configurations, there were both degenerate and non-degenerate cases.

We did our experiments on a P4 2.6GHz. In fig. 4 we present the times for 2 test suites, where the ellipses have 10-bit coefficients in their parametric form. The first graph involves ellipses that do not share a common Voronoi circle with the query one, whose center moves along the line $y = -x$ (fig. 5 left). Notice that the time increases as we approach a degenerate configuration. Although the hardest cases took about 5s, in 90\% of the cases we can decide in less than 2.5s. The C++ implementation without any compiler optimizations is 2 times faster than Maple. The second graph involves circles (fig. 5 right). The peak corresponds to nearly degenerate configurations, running in 38s and 200 iterations. In all other cases the timings are less than 2.5s. Again, the C++ implementation is 3-4 times faster.

Our implementations are exact but can also run with any prescribed precision, e.g. for rendering purposes. In particular, a much faster execution is possible for the above algorithms if we restrict ourselves to machine precision, as in [5].

Solving the algebraic system $B(t, r) = B(t, s) = B(r, s) = 0$ with the SYNAPS [8] package of multivariate subdivision in 3 msec to 1 min, depending on how large the initial domain was. Moreover, we used PHCpack, to solve the system of $\Delta_i$’s, in about 35-40 seconds. These running times indicate that our dedicated solver sometimes outperforms generic solvers on the algebraic system. Moreover, solving the algebraic system alone does not suffice to completely decide the predicate, contrary to our algorithm.
Figure 4: Execution time as function of the position of the query ellipse’s (circle’s) center. The solid line corresponds to C++, the dotted one to Maple.

Figure 5: Test suites

5 Future work

Our final goal is a CGAL implementation of the Voronoi diagram of ellipses. Working in C++ may allow us to use one of the powerful interval arithmetic packages. We tried the iCOs interval-arithmetic solver on the system of $\Delta_i$’s with bitsize 60. It detects a degeneracy in about 213 sec on a 1GHz P3.

The most difficult part of the implementations is the detection of a degeneracy. Although near-degenerate inputs can be handled quite efficiently, real degeneracies exploit the separation bound and need a large number of iterations. Then, the computed quantities grow too large. We are currently trying to optimize the inner loop. In this direction, we are looking for better ways to perform certified sign computation of $Q_1 \pm Q_2$, as well as better separation bounds using geometric arguments and exploiting the algebraic approach.

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