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A HEURISTIC METHOD FOR REGION RECONSTRUCTION FROM NOISY SAMPLES

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We describe a heuristic method for reconstructing a region in the plane from a noisy sample of points. The method uses radial basis functions with Gaussian kernels to compute a fuzzy membership function which provides an implicit approximation for the region. We also evaluate our reconstruction method for several sampling conditions.

Keywords: Shape reconstruction; radial basis functions; fuzzy membership function; sums of Gaussians.

1991 Mathematics Subject Classification: 65D10, 65D17

1. Introduction

We consider the problem of reconstructing a region in the plane from a noisy sample of points. Figure 1 shows the setting: Λ is a region of \mathbf{R}^2 and points are sampled in or near Λ . Note three things about the sampling: the points are well distributed in the interior of Λ ; there are sample points outside Λ (these are the effect of noise in the sampling); and the boundary of Λ is not sampled at all, except by accident.

The classical geometrical solutions for shape reconstruction from points, such as α -shapes⁴ and β -skeletons,⁸ work well in the absence of noise but are too sensitive to the presence of noise, because they use *all* sample points in the reconstruction graph. We seek a method that can automatically identify points that are definitely in the interior of the region (these are trustworthy) and points that are near the boundary (these are less trustworthy because of noise).

To the best of our knowledge, there has been no research explicitly focused on this region reconstruction problem. Virtually all previous work has focused on the reconstruction of curves and surfaces^{3,9} due to its practical importance in shape acquisition and reverse engineering. In these applications, the points are sampled on or near the boundary of the object, but not in its interior. Moreover, most approaches that use radial basis functions for shape reconstruction view the problem as a function interpolation problem.^{2,5,6} However, we are not dealing here with a function interpolation problem, not even one that could be approached by giving a constant value to every sample point: as mentioned above, the challenge is to

2 *Emilio Ashton Vital Brazil and Luiz Henrique de Figueiredo*

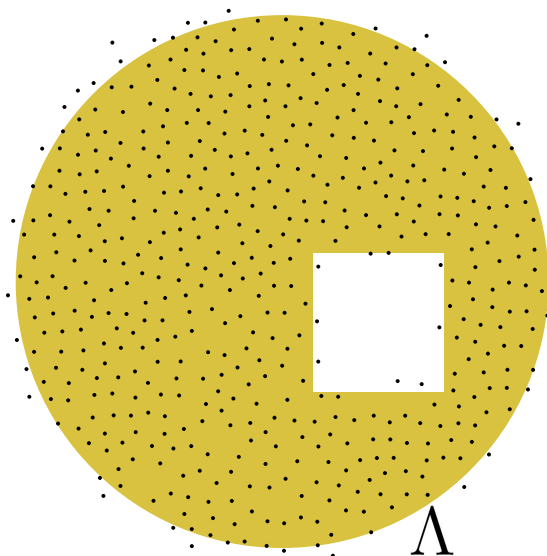


Fig. 1. A noisy sample of a planar region Λ .

identify the trustworthy interior points. This is our main motivation.

The mathematical problem we want to solve is defined and discussed in Section 2. Our heuristic solution is explained in Section 3. Example reconstructions and performance results are discussed in Section 4.

2. The Problem

To handle noisy samples and to quantify the trustworthiness of each sample point, we approach the region reconstruction problem as a characteristic function reconstruction problem:

Given a sample S of points well distributed in or near an unknown region $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbf{R}^2$, find an approximation $\hat{\chi}$ for the characteristic function χ_Λ that is consistent with S .

A sample is *well distributed* when the number of sample points per area unit does not vary much in or near Λ . To model noise in the sample, we shall assume that the sampling has been done according to the density implied by an unknown *fuzzy membership function*¹³ $\tilde{\chi}$ for Λ , that is, a function $\tilde{\chi}: \mathbf{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, 1]$ that satisfies

$$\tilde{\chi}(x) = 1 \Rightarrow x \in \Lambda \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{\chi}(x) = 0 \Rightarrow x \notin \Lambda.$$

Note that, in contrast, the characteristic function $\chi = \chi_\Lambda$ satisfies

$$\chi(x) = 1 \Leftrightarrow x \in \Lambda \quad \text{and} \quad \chi(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x \notin \Lambda.$$

Thus, a fuzzy membership function only provides partial information about Λ , but it never lies: when $\tilde{\chi}$ coincides with χ , the membership information provided by $\tilde{\chi}$ is correct. The more $\tilde{\chi}$ differs from χ , the noisier the sample is. Note that the noise is concentrated near the boundary of Λ .

To reconstruct Λ from S , we shall approximate $\tilde{\chi}$ with another fuzzy membership function $\hat{\chi}$, and from $\hat{\chi}$ obtain an approximation $\hat{\Lambda}$ for Λ . Recall that both $\tilde{\chi}$ and Λ are unknown. The only information comes from the sample points S ; the values of $\tilde{\chi}$ in S are not provided. Thus, as mentioned in Section 1, we are not dealing with the standard problem of function interpolation from 2D scattered data.¹²

Assigning a constant value, say 1, to each sample point and interpolating a function through these points would not solve the region reconstruction problem: there would be no sample points with value 0 to force the interpolated function to approximate χ or $\tilde{\chi}$. Any solution to the region reconstruction problem must identify points that need to be discarded or given low weight in such an interpolation. It cannot treat all sample points in the same way: some points have to be identified as being interior points and thus more trustworthy.

3. Our Solution

Our solution to the region reconstruction problem uses radial basis functions¹ to compute an approximation $\hat{\chi}$ for the characteristic function χ of Λ that is consistent with the sample S . From $\hat{\chi}$ we compute an implicit approximation $\hat{\Lambda}$ for Λ as

$$\hat{\Lambda} = \{x \in \mathbf{R}^2 : \hat{\chi}(x) \geq \delta\},$$

for a suitable threshold $\delta \in (0, 1]$, typically 0.5. The details are explained below.

An example of the method in action is shown in Figure 2. Starting from the sample points, we use radial basis functions to combine the local influence of all sample points into a single *pre-reconstruction function* $\Phi: \mathbf{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ given by

$$\Phi(x) = \sum_{\xi \in S} K_{\xi}(x),$$

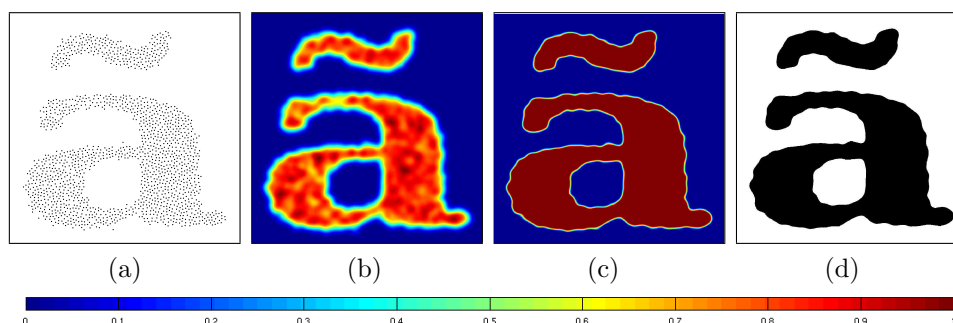


Fig. 2. Overview of our reconstruction method: (a) sample points S_2 , (b) pre-reconstruction function Φ , (c) fuzzy membership function $\hat{\chi}$, (d) reconstructed region $\hat{\Lambda}$.

4 *Emilio Ashton Vital Brazil and Luiz Henrique de Figueiredo*

where K_ξ is a radial basis function, or *kernel*, centered at the sample point $\xi \in S$. Having selected a suitable kernel, which in our case will be a Gaussian (Section 3.1), we define the approximation $\hat{\chi}$ as the following normalization of Φ :

$$\hat{\chi}(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \Phi(x) \leq A \\ \frac{\Phi(x) - A}{B - A}, & A \leq \Phi(x) \leq B \\ 1, & \Phi(x) \geq B \end{cases}$$

This normalization maps the interval $[A, B]$ linearly onto the interval $[0, 1]$, cutting values below A or above B . After many tests, we found empirically that the values below worked well:

$$A = 0.7c, \quad B = 1.5c, \quad c = \frac{2 \max \{\Phi(x) : x \in \Omega\}}{\log(N)}.$$

3.1. Choosing the kernel

Since we assume that the sample is well distributed in and near Λ , we consider only isotropic kernels K_ξ , that is, functions whose value at a point $x \in \mathbf{R}^2$ depend only on the distance from x to the sample point ξ . More precisely, we take

$$K_\xi(x) = \psi\left(\frac{|x - \xi|}{r}\right),$$

where $\psi: \mathbf{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is a *basis function* and r is the *radius of influence*, which we take the same for all sample points ξ (Section 3.2).

We tested several candidates for ψ . Some had compact support and satisfied $\psi(u) = 0$ for $u > 1$. (In terms of K_ξ , this means that ξ does not influence points x that are farther than r from ξ .) We tested the following candidates for ψ :

- $\psi(u) = 1$ (constant)
- $\psi(u) = 1 - u$ (linear)
- $\psi(u) = 1 - 2u^k + u^{k+1}$ (polynomial)
- $\psi(u) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{-1}u^k + 1}$ (rational)
- $\psi(u) = e^{-\log(\varepsilon^{-1})u^k}$ (compact exponential)

where $\varepsilon > 0$ and $k \in \mathbf{N}$ are parameters.

We also tested candidates without compact support:

- $\psi(u) = e^{-u^k}$ (exponential)
- $\psi(u) = e^{-u^2/2}$ (Gaussian)

We tried several variations of the parameters involved, but the functions with compact support did not give good results. We chose the Gaussian basis function for the rest of the research because it proved less sensitive to variations in the spatial uniformity of the sample. The other functions generated false holes in the reconstruction wherever there were voids in the sample (Figure 3).

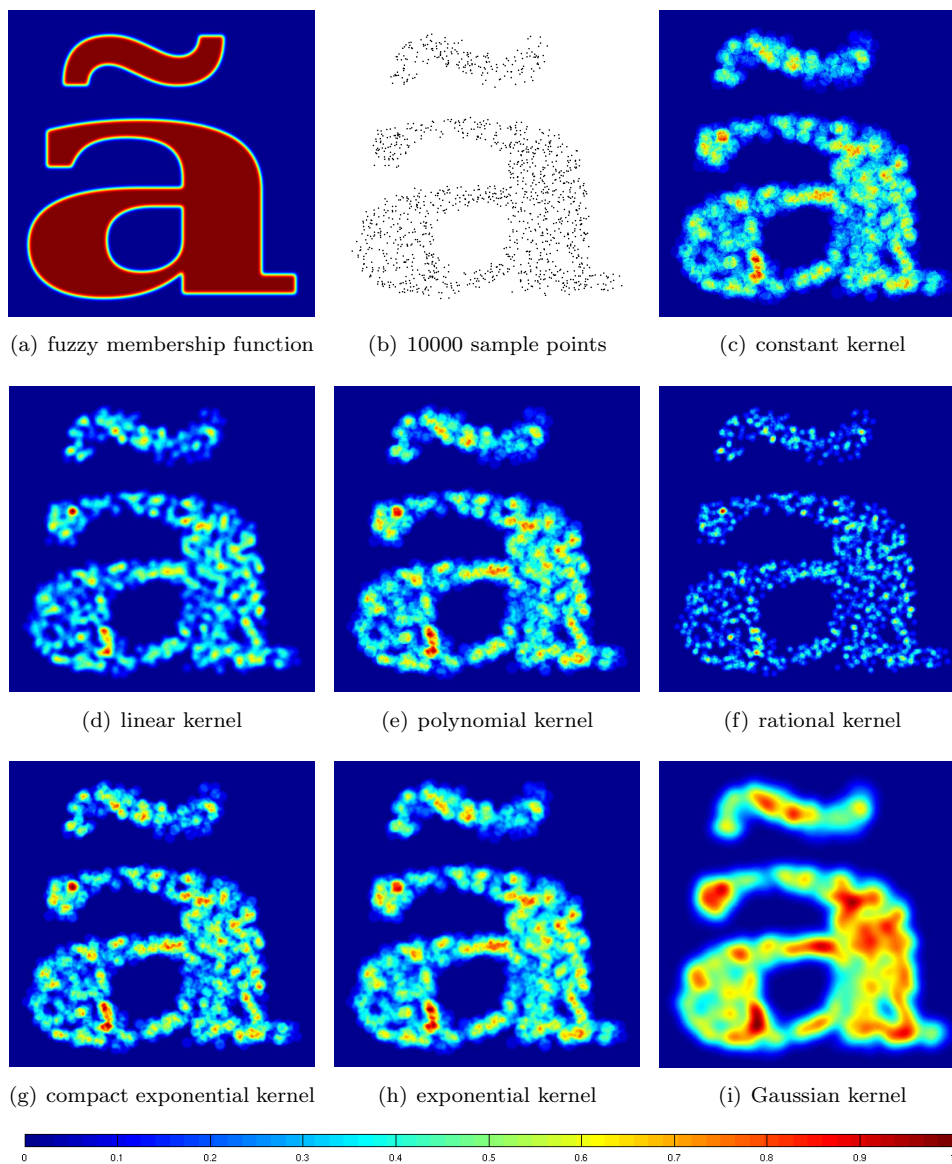


Fig. 3. Pre-reconstruction for several kernels. False holes appear in the dark blues areas in the interior of the region, for all kernels except the Gaussian kernel.

3.2. *Choosing the radius*

The radius of influence is the main parameter in our approach. We want to choose a radius that is adapted to the sample, being small for dense samples and larger for sparse samples.

6 *Emilio Ashton Vital Brazil and Luiz Henrique de Figueiredo*

Since we assume that the sample well distributed, the number of sample points that influence the value of Φ at a point x near Λ should be approximately the same for all points x . The radius of influence measures not only the density of the sample but also its spatial structure, if any. For instance, if the sample is taken on a rectangular grid, we expect that about 4 sample points will influence any given point; if the sample is taken via a Poisson process, we expect that about 6 sample points will influence any given point.

We choose the radius automatically (but empirically) as follows. If the sample were uniformly distributed in a rectangle Ω containing Λ , and if we laid a regular grid of square cells so that each cell contained just one sample point, then the diameter of the cells would be $\sqrt{2 \text{area}(\Omega)/N}$, and so the radius of the disk circumscribing a cell would be $R_0 = \sqrt{\text{area}(\Omega)/2N}$, as shown in Figure 4.

However, the sample is not uniformly distributed in Ω , because it is concentrated near Λ . So, we lay a regular grid of square cells of side $2R_0$ in Ω and look at the sample points that land in each cell. For each sample point ξ , we compute the radius $R(\xi)$ of the smallest ball centered at ξ containing least n sample points, for a small fixed $n \geq 2$, which will depend on the spatial structure of the sample. If a cell C contains more than n sample points, we take $R(C)$ to be the average of all $R(\xi)$ for $\xi \in C$. If C contains less than n sample points, we take $R(C) = R_0$. We take the average of $R(C)$ over all cells C as our first estimate \hat{r} of the influence radius r .

The final value of r is computed as follows: We need to decide which n to use. We start with $n = 2$ and compute the relative standard deviation $\sigma' = \sigma/\hat{r}$ of the $R(\xi)$ over all sample points ξ . If $\sigma' \leq 0.01$, we infer that the sample has strong spatial structure and we take $r = \hat{r}/2$. If $\sigma' \leq 0.25$, we infer that the sample has some spatial structure and we take $r = \hat{r}$. If $\sigma' > 0.25$, we increase n by 1 and repeat the previous analysis until we reach $\sigma' \leq 0.25$ or $n = 12$. If we reach $n = 12$ without reaching $\sigma' \leq 0.25$, then we pronounce the sample to be not well distributed and abort the reconstruction.

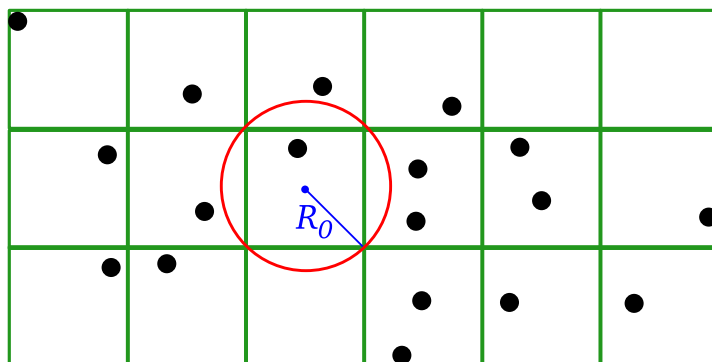


Fig. 4. Initial radius R_0 .

4. Results

Tests. We tested and evaluated our reconstruction method for several regions and sampling conditions. Here we report on the results for the two synthetic regions Λ shown in Figure 5. The region ‘Q’ was chosen to try to assess the effect of smoothing on the edges. The region ‘a’ was chosen to try to assess how well the reconstruction handled topological features, such as multiple connected components and holes.

To establish ground truth for our experiments, we selected a rectangular region Ω containing Λ and we used rejection sampling¹⁰ to sample Ω according to the density implied by a fuzzy membership function $\tilde{\chi}$ for Λ . To simulate noise, we took $\tilde{\chi}$ as a convolution of χ_Λ with a Gaussian low-pass filter with σ^2 equal to 2% and 4% of the area of Ω , as shown in Figure 6.

To test the behavior of samples with spatial structure, we chose four sampling schemes: points in a regular grid, points in a perturbed regular grid, points with a Poisson disk distribution, and points uniformly distributed in Ω with no spatial structure, as illustrated in Figure 7.

We used two error measures to quantify the quality of the reconstruction in Ω :

$$\mathcal{E}_{\tilde{\chi}} = \frac{1000}{\text{area}(\Omega)} \int_{\Omega} (\tilde{\chi}(x) - \hat{\chi}(x))^2 dx$$

$$\mathcal{E}_{\hat{\Lambda}} = \frac{1000}{\text{area}(\Omega)} \int_{\Omega} (\chi_\Lambda(x) - \chi_{\hat{\Lambda}}(x))^2 dx$$

These numbers measure how far the approximating fuzzy membership function $\hat{\chi}$ is from the original function $\tilde{\chi}$ and how far the reconstructed region $\hat{\Lambda}$ is from the original region Λ . Recall that our ground truth is $\tilde{\chi}$ and Λ , here represented by χ_Λ . (The normalization factor 1000 was added to simplify the numbers.)

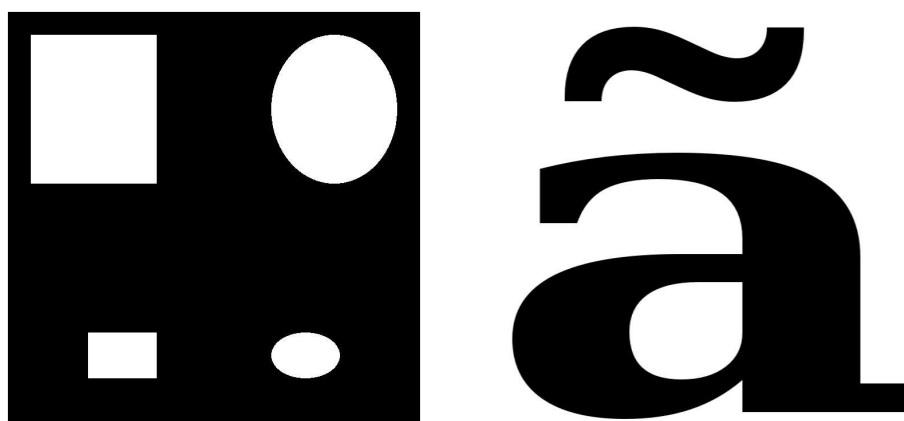


Fig. 5. Regions used in tests: ‘Q’ and ‘a’.

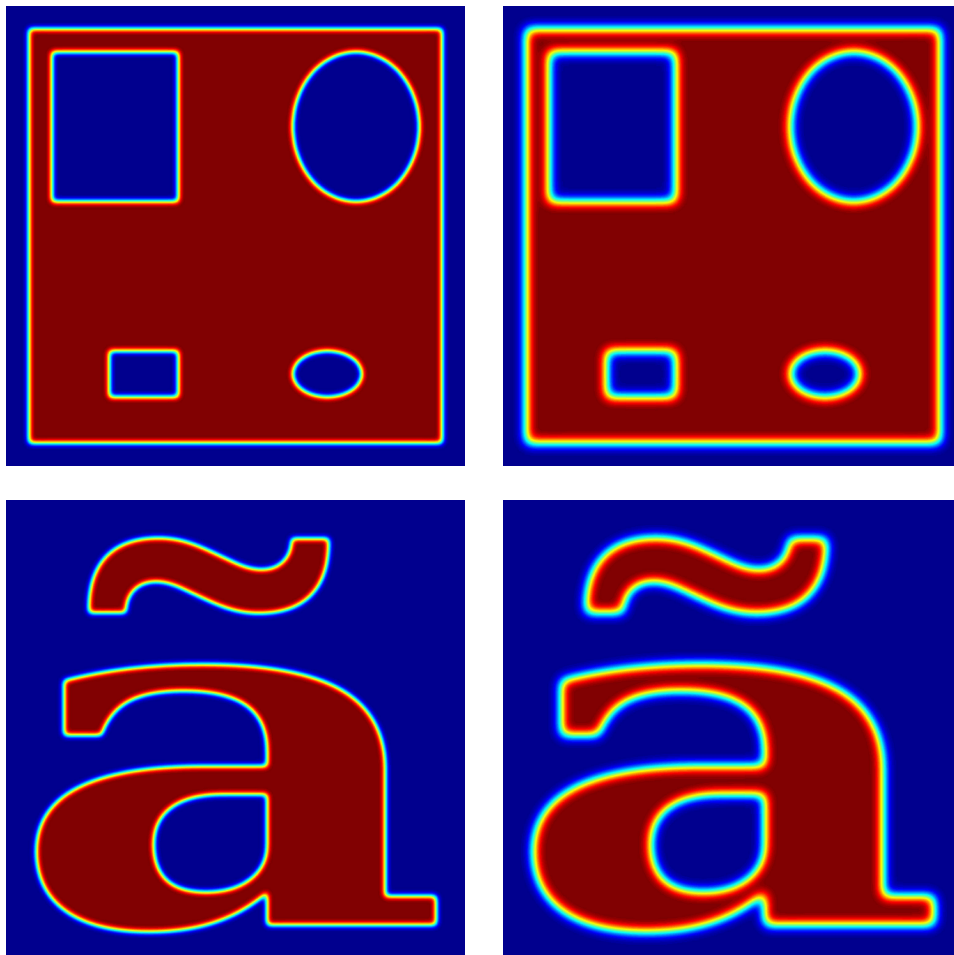


Fig. 6. Fuzzy membership functions used in tests. Left: 2% noise; right: 4% noise.

Results. Typical samples used in the tests are shown in Figure 10. The reconstructions obtained with our method from these samples are shown in Figure 11 for noiseless samples and in Figure 12 for noisy samples. In these figures, we show the reconstructed region $\hat{\Lambda}$ and the reconstruction error $|\chi_{\Lambda} - \chi_{\hat{\Lambda}}|$. Figure 13 shows the fuzzy membership function $\hat{\chi}$ for the reconstructions shown in Figures 11 and 12.

Table 1 shows the average reconstruction errors. Each block gives $\mathcal{E}_{\hat{\chi}} | \mathcal{E}_{\hat{\Lambda}}$ for the test regions shown in Figures 5 and 6. The best results are shown in bold.

Figure 8 shows a reconstruction of a Miró print that tries to recreate the imaginary region sampled by the artist. The points used in the reconstruction were sampled from a black-and-white version of the original color image.

Figure 9 shows the effect of smoothing on the edges. As expected, the smoothing decreases with the sample size.

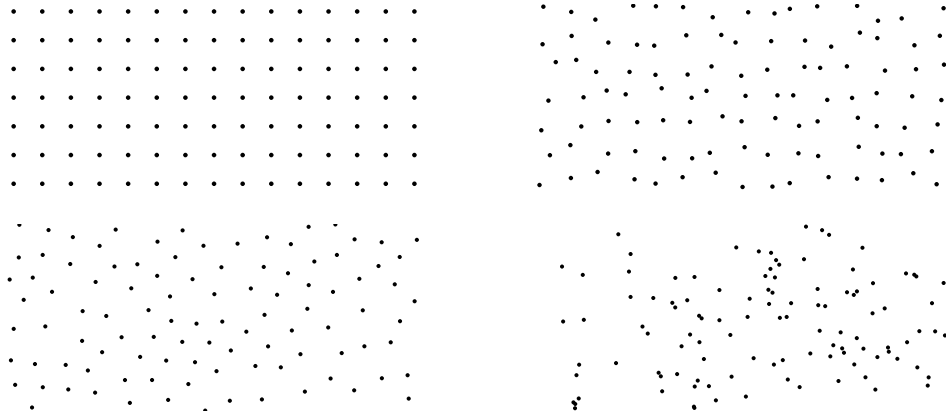


Fig. 7. Sampling schemes: regular grid, perturbed regular grid, Poisson disk distribution, no spatial structure.

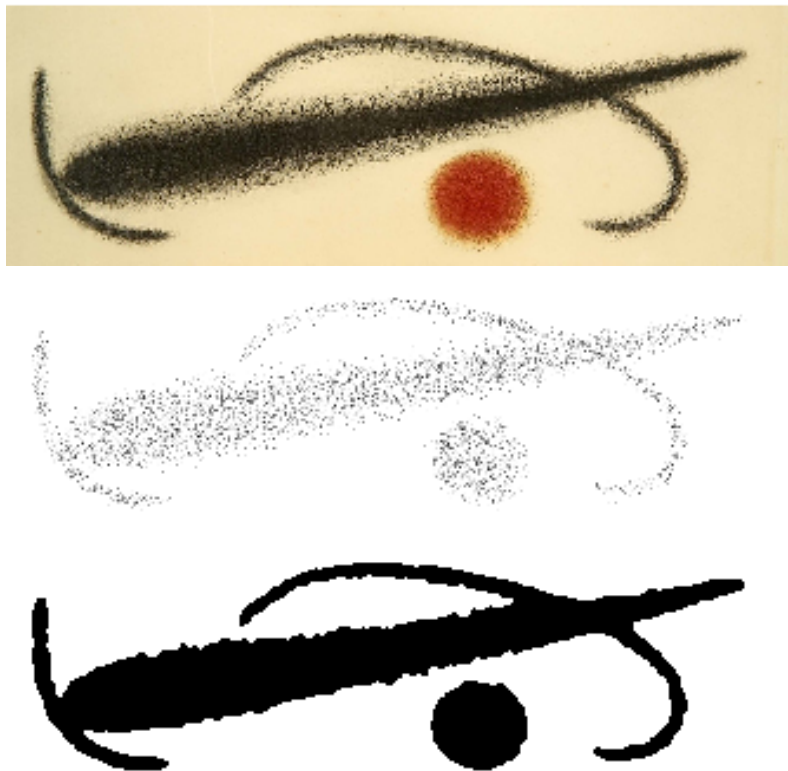


Fig. 8. Reconstructing a Miró print: original print, sample points, reconstructed region.

10 *Emilio Ashton Vital Brazil and Luiz Henrique de Figueiredo*

500	RG	PRG	PD	U
χ_Q	082 081	088 076	092 076	194 172
$\tilde{\chi}_Q$ 2%	082 081	079 079	080 079	178 172
$\tilde{\chi}_Q$ 4%	100 099	082 085	084 089	167 171
χ_a	061 058	077 062	086 066	175 162
$\tilde{\chi}_a$ 2%	073 072	065 063	074 069	165 162
$\tilde{\chi}_a$ 4%	077 079	068 070	075 077	158 164
1000	RG	PRG	PD	U
χ_Q	050 047	056 053	065 054	137 118
$\tilde{\chi}_Q$ 2%	060 056	056 056	059 059	123 119
$\tilde{\chi}_Q$ 4%	091 082	073 068	073 070	120 123
χ_a	041 040	052 043	055 043	116 102
$\tilde{\chi}_a$ 2%	055 054	047 047	048 047	106 104
$\tilde{\chi}_a$ 4%	071 067	058 055	058 056	102 107
4000	RG	PRG	PD	U
χ_Q	027 027	036 034	040 038	060 047
$\tilde{\chi}_Q$ 2%	047 040	044 040	045 042	052 050
$\tilde{\chi}_Q$ 4%	088 078	071 056	070 057	065 056
χ_a	028 027	032 030	032 029	050 041
$\tilde{\chi}_a$ 2%	049 046	038 035	038 036	043 042
$\tilde{\chi}_a$ 4%	072 063	061 049	057 046	052 048
10000	RG	PRG	PD	U
χ_Q	022 021	025 023	028 027	037 030
$\tilde{\chi}_Q$ 2%	051 044	042 036	042 036	036 033
$\tilde{\chi}_Q$ 4%	084 072	072 055	070 053	057 040
χ_a	018 018	021 021	023 022	031 026
$\tilde{\chi}_a$ 2%	046 043	036 031	035 030	031 024
$\tilde{\chi}_a$ 4%	069 058	061 047	058 044	047 035

Table 1. Average reconstruction errors $\mathcal{E}_{\tilde{\chi}} | \mathcal{E}_{\tilde{\chi}}$. From top to bottom: 500, 1000, 4000, 10000 sample points. From left to right: regular grid; perturbed regular grid; Poisson disk distribution; no spatial structure. Best results in bold.

Discussion. For noiseless samples (Figure 11), the reconstruction was better for spatially structured samples (RG, PRG, PD), even for small samples. Samples from regular grids gave the best results overall. For noisy samples (Figure 12), spatially structured samples gave better results when the sample was small, but unstructured samples gave better results when the sample was large. Surprisingly, samples from a Poisson disk distribution did not perform well. We also performed convergence tests and they showed that the reconstruction errors decreased fairly fast as the

size of the sample increased.

The numbers in Table 1 suggest that the two error measures are essentially the same. The numerical differences in reconstruction performance shown in Table 1, which are given in thousandths of the area of Ω , do not always translate into clear visual differences in the reconstructions shown in Figures 11 and 12. This suggests that our reconstruction method is robust and works for different kinds of samples. Of course, the larger the sample, the better the reconstruction.

The method faithfully reproduced all topological features of the test shapes and successfully reconstructed almost all of their interiors, as quantified by our error measures (the typical error was around 5%). In particular, our method can reliably identify the sample points that are clearly inside Λ and the sample points that are probably near the boundary of Λ , which was one of our goals. As illustrated in Figure 13, the empirically chosen normalization parameters A and B allow us to identify the interior points quite well: they are the points x for which $\hat{\chi}(x) = 1$. Moreover, the boundary points, for which $0 < \hat{\chi}(x) < 1$, are limited to a narrow band. As a consequence, the method reconstructs the interior of the shapes quite well. The boundary of the approximating region $\hat{\Lambda}$ is thin but is not as smooth as we may expect; it contains some oscillations. However, at least in our experiments, this expectation is probably due to the strong intuitive meaning of the test shapes.

5. Conclusion

Although it is based on heuristics and empirical choice of parameters, the region reconstruction method that we have proposed here is simple to understand and implement. The implicit representation provided for the reconstructed region $\hat{\Lambda}$ can be exploited for geometric processing, such as area computation and boundary evaluation.

Two lines for further research seem natural at this point. One is to use principal components analysis⁷ (PCA) to generate anisotropic kernels and try to improve the smoothness of the reconstructed boundaries. Another is that an analysis of the variation of the radius $R(\xi)$ can be used to determine the spatial structure of the sample. This information can probably be exploited for other tasks.

Acknowledgements

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12 *Emilio Ashton Vital Brazil and Luiz Henrique de Figueiredo*

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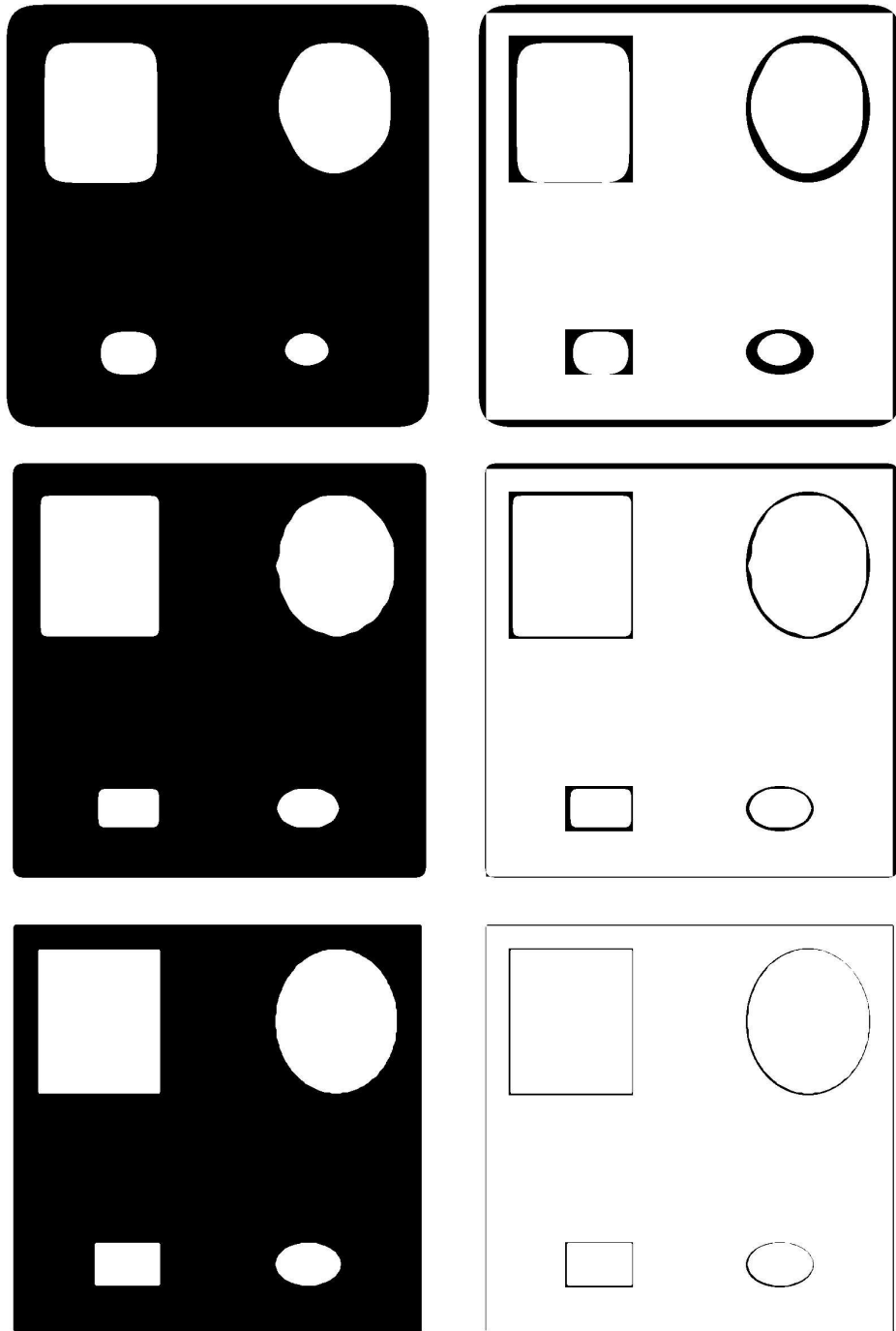
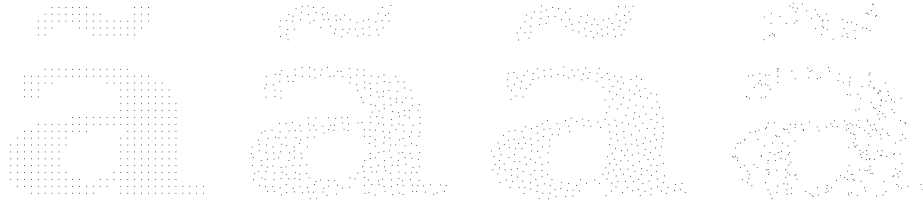


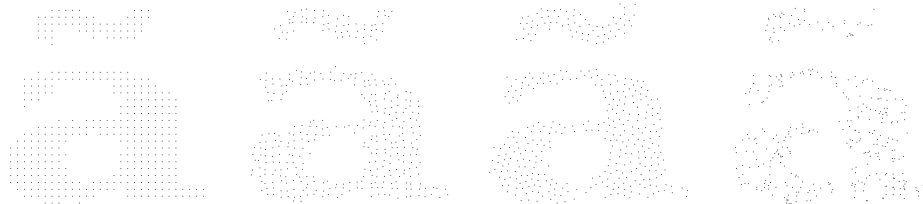
Fig. 9. Smoothing effect on boundaries. Left: reconstructed region; right: reconstruction error. From top to bottom: 1000, 10000, and 100000 points.

14 *Emilio Ashton Vital Brazil and Luiz Henrique de Figueiredo*

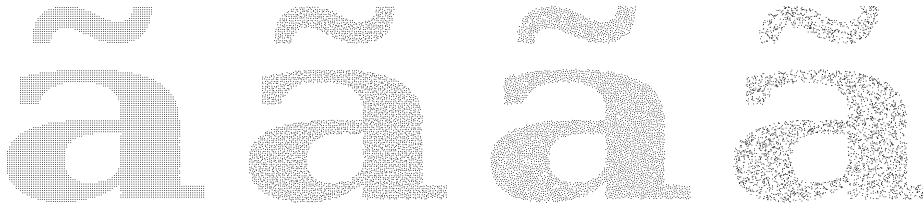
1000 points, noiseless



1000 points, noisy



10000 points, noiseless



10000 points, noisy



RG

PRG

PD

U

Fig. 10. Samples used in tests. From top to bottom: 1000 sample points, noiseless and noisy; 10000 sample points, noiseless and noisy. From left to right: regular grid; perturbed regular grid; Poisson disk distribution; no spatial structure.

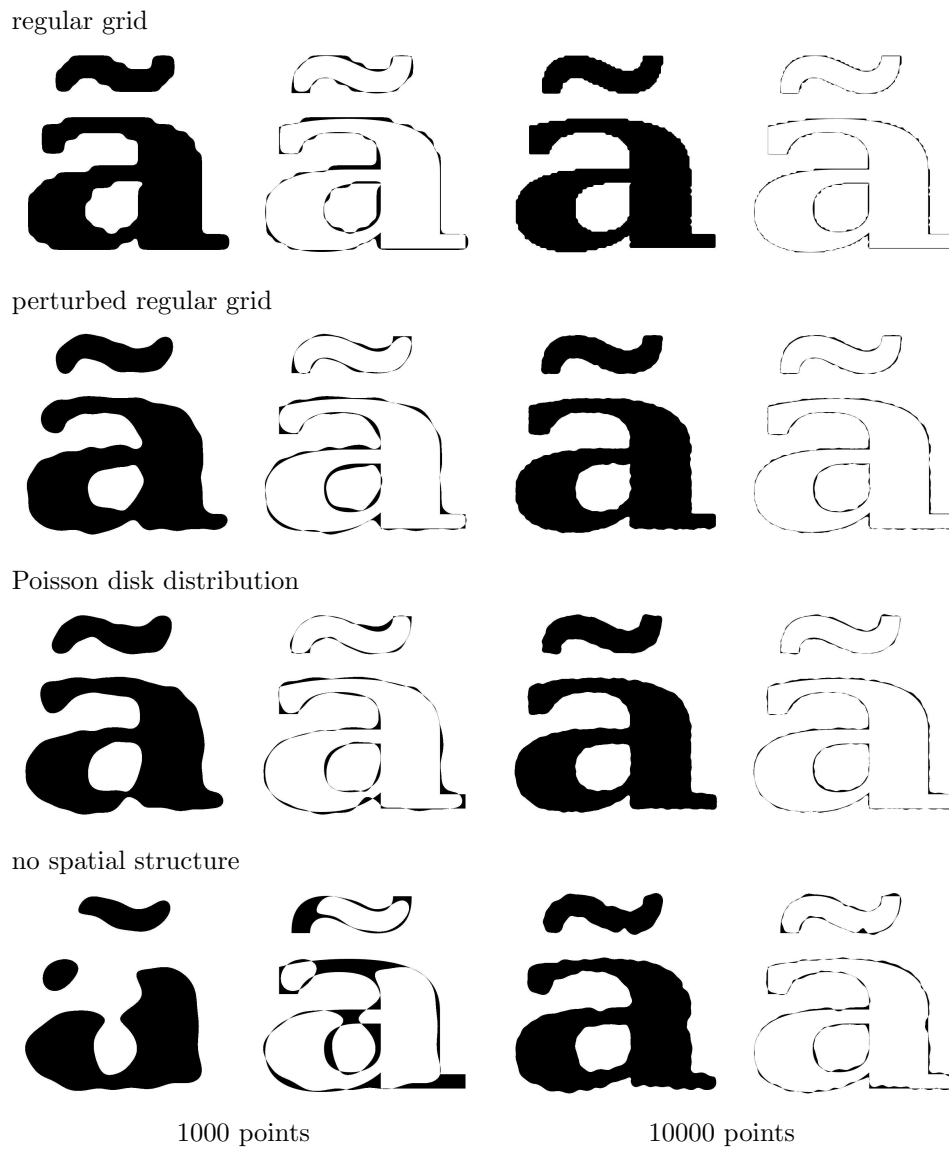
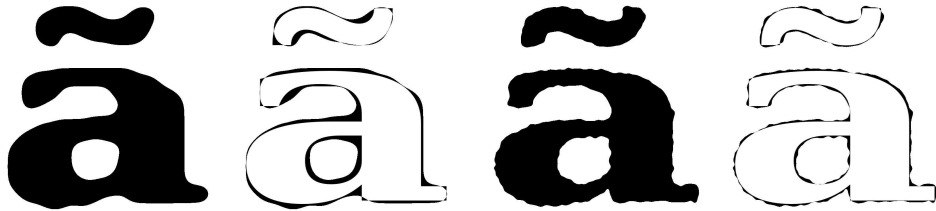


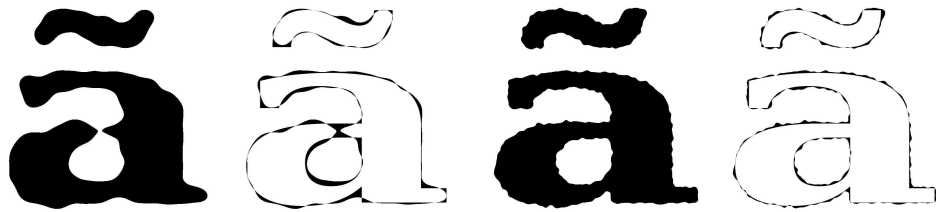
Fig. 11. Reconstructed regions and reconstruction errors for noiseless samples. Left two columns: 1000 sample points; right two columns: 10000 sample points. From top to bottom: regular grid; perturbed regular grid; Poisson disk distribution; no spatial structure.

16 *Emilio Ashton Vital Brazil and Luiz Henrique de Figueiredo*

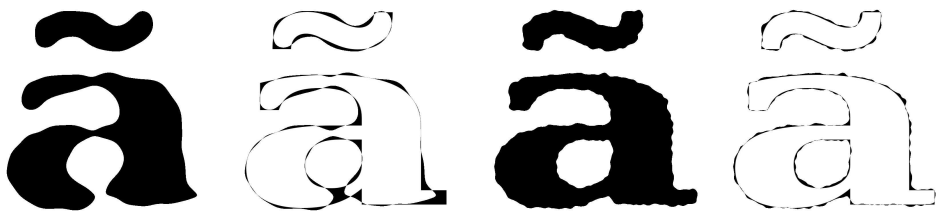
regular grid



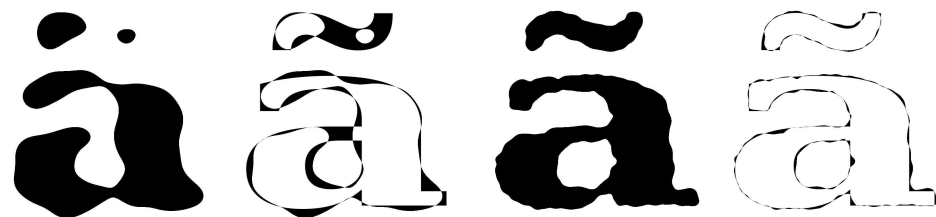
perturbed regular grid



Poisson disk distribution



no spatial structure



1000 points

10000 points

Fig. 12. Reconstructed regions and reconstruction errors for samples with 2% noise. Left two columns: 1000 sample points; right two columns: 10000 sample points. From top to bottom: regular grid; perturbed regular grid; Poisson disk distribution; no spatial structure.

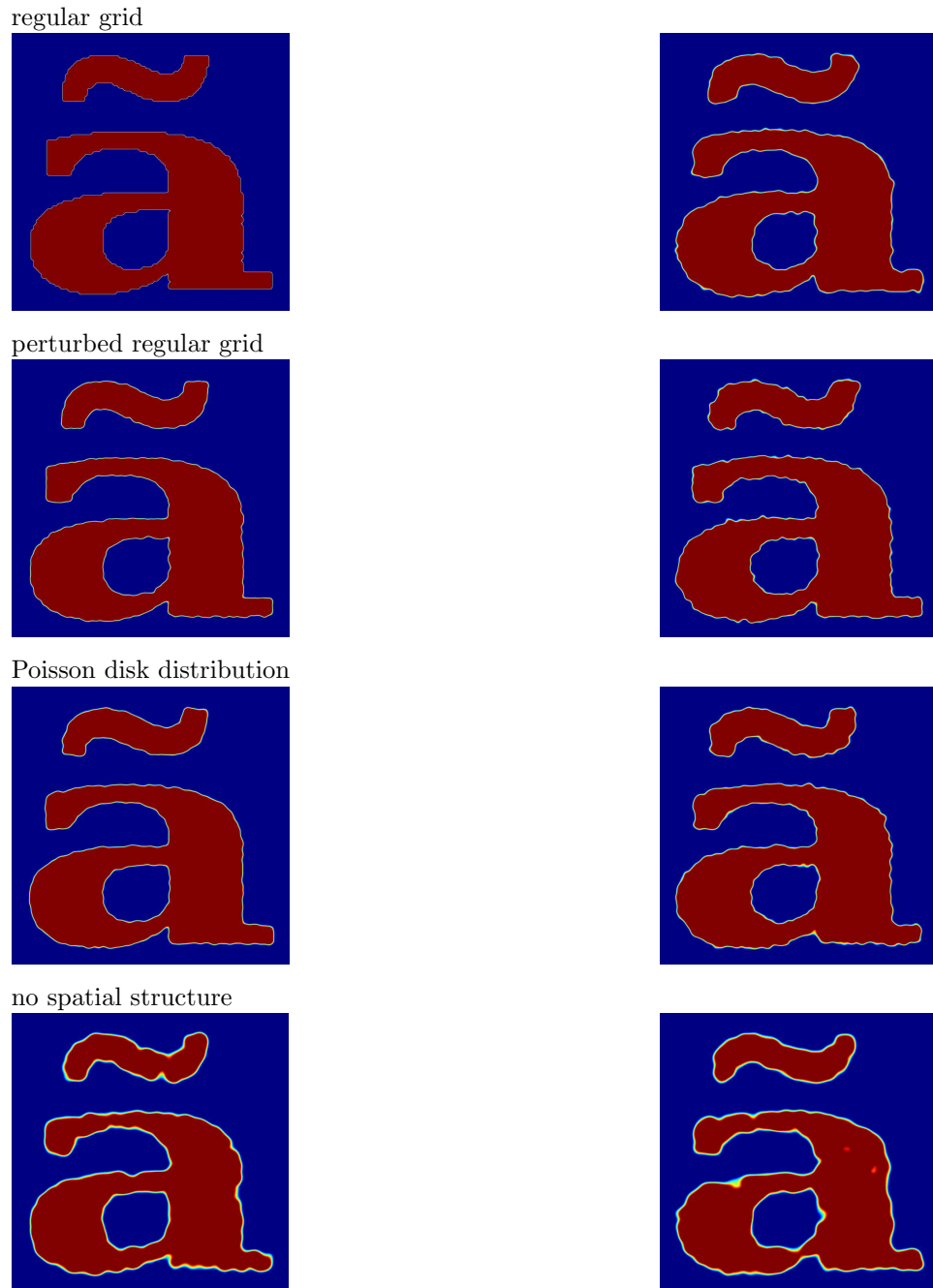


Fig. 13. Fuzzy membership functions for 10000 sample points. Left column: noiseless, right column: 2% noise. From top to bottom: regular grid; perturbed regular grid; Poisson disk distribution; no spatial structure.