

# Computing the shape of a point set in digital images

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## *Abstract*

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The point set here consists of pixels from a digital image. First, the digital Voronoi diagram of the set is constructed using the Euclidean distance. From this diagram a certain planar graph is found which is a subgraph of the Delaunay triangulation of the point set. Finally, the shape of the point set is computed as a certain subgraph of the planar graph.

*Keywords.* Discrete points, digital geometry, Voronoi diagram, planar graph, planar shape.

## 1. Introduction

One common way to define the shape of a finite set of 2-D points is its convex hull. There is a host of algorithms to compute convex hulls. But in many cases the underlying shape from which the points emerge is not convex. Edelsbrunner et al. (1983) extended one definition of the convex hull and proposed a general definition of the shape (convex or otherwise) of a finite planar set. This is called  $\alpha$ -shape which will find applications in pattern recognition.

The present paper proposes an algorithm to find the  $\alpha$ -shape of a finite set of digital points. In image processing problems, it is sometimes necessary to reconstruct a shape from a set of pixels or lattice points (whose coordinates are only integers). Since our aim here is to find the shape boundary of a point set including boundary concavities, we will

consider  $\alpha$ -shapes for negative  $\alpha$  only. In Section 2 the definitions and results that are relevant for  $\alpha$ -shape (for arbitrary  $\alpha$ ) computation in the continuous case, are given. In Section 3 we present some definitions and results on digital geometry that are useful for computing  $\alpha$ -shapes (for negative  $\alpha$ ) in the digital case. Computational techniques are explained in Section 4. Results and conclusions are given in Section 5.

## 2. Definitions and results in continuous case (Edelsbrunner et al. (1983))

Let  $\alpha$  be an arbitrary real number. A *generalized disc of radius  $1/\alpha$*  is defined as a closed disc of radius  $1/\alpha$  if  $\alpha > 0$ , the closed complement of a disc of radius  $-1/\alpha$  if  $\alpha < 0$ , and a closed halfplane if  $\alpha = 0$ . For a set  $S$  of 2-D points, the  $\alpha$ -*hull of  $S$*  is the intersection of all generalized discs of radius  $1/\alpha$  that contain  $S$ . A point  $P$  in  $S$  is  $\alpha$ -*extreme in  $S$*  if there exists a generalized disc of radius  $1/\alpha$  containing  $S$  such that  $P$  lies on its boundary. Two

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$\alpha$ -extreme points  $P$  and  $Q$  of  $S$  are  $\alpha$ -neighbours if there exists a generalized disc of radius  $1/\alpha$  containing  $S$  such that both  $P$  and  $Q$  lie on its boundary. The  $\alpha$ -shape of  $S$  is the planar straight line graph whose vertices are the  $\alpha$ -extreme points and whose edges connect the respective  $\alpha$ -neighbours. As  $\alpha$  approaches zero, the  $\alpha$ -shape tends to coincide with the convex hull of  $S$ .

**Proposition 2.1.** *The  $\alpha$ -shape of  $S$  is a subgraph of the Delaunay triangulation of  $S$  which can be computed from the closest point Voronoi diagram (for  $\alpha < 0$ ) or the furthest point Voronoi diagram (for  $\alpha > 0$ ) of  $S$ .*

**Proposition 2.2.** *For every edge  $e$  in the Delaunay triangulation of  $S$ , there exist real numbers  $\alpha_{\min}(e)$  and  $\alpha_{\max}(e)$  where  $\alpha_{\min}(e) \leq \alpha_{\max}(e)$  such that  $e$  is an edge of the  $\alpha$ -shape of  $S$  if and only if  $\alpha_{\min}(e) \leq \alpha \leq \alpha_{\max}(e)$ .*

Thus, the edges of the  $\alpha$ -shape can be identified after examining the edges of the Delaunay triangulation of  $S$  (Edelsbrunner et al. (1983)).

**3. Definitions and results in digital case**

Let  $S = \{P_i, i = 1, \dots, n\}$  be a set of pixels in a

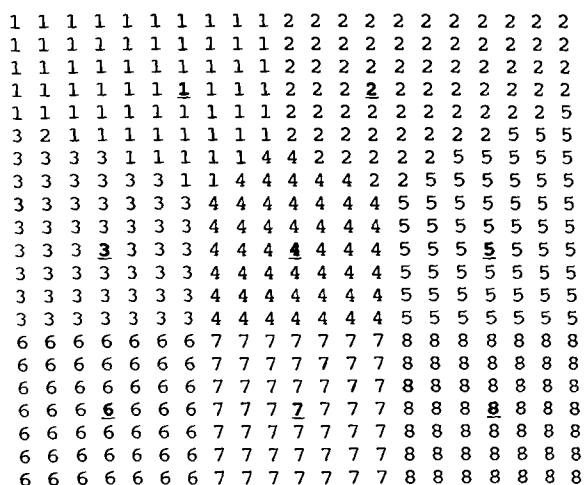


Figure 1. Digital Dirichlet Tessellation of  $S$  which is a set of eight pixels (indicated by underlined labels). Labels ' $i$ ' mark the  $i$ th Voronoi tile for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, 8$ .

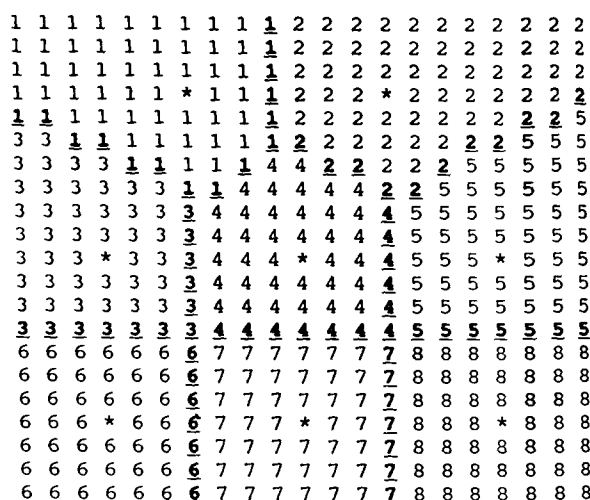


Figure 2. The pixels with underlined labels indicate the Digital Voronoi Diagram of  $S$ . Pixels of  $S$  have labels ' $*$ '.

digital image  $I$  of size  $m \times m$  where  $P_i = (r_i, c_i)$  and  $r_i, c_i$  are integers indicating the row and column positions respectively of the pixel  $P_i$ . Let, for any pixel  $P$  with coordinates  $(r, c)$  in  $I$ ,  $d(P, P_i)$  denote the Euclidean distance  $\{(r - r_i)^2 + (c - c_i)^2\}^{1/2}$ . A matrix  $M$  of size  $m \times m$  is defined as follows.  $M(r, c) = i$  if (1)  $d(P, P_i) \leq d(P, P_j)$  for all  $j \neq i$  and (2)  $d(P, P_i) < d(P, P_j)$  for all  $j < i$ . In other words, a pixel  $P$  in  $I$  gets as its label the index of its nearest pixel in  $S$ . If  $P$  has multiple nearest pixels in  $S$ , then the minimum index among these nearest pixels becomes the label of  $P$  (Figure 1).

Clearly,  $M(r_i, c_i) = i$  for all  $i$ .

**Definition 3.1.**  $C(i) = \{(r, c) : M(r, c) = i\}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

Note that the  $C(i)$ 's are non-empty and disjoint and their union is the whole image  $I$ .

**Definition 3.2.**  $C(i)$  is the digital Voronoi polygon or tile corresponding to  $P_i$ .

**Definition 3.3.** The set of all  $n$  tiles is the digital Dirichlet Tessellation (DDT) of  $S$  (Figure 1).

The digital Voronoi diagram (DVD) of  $S$  is defined as follows. It consists of pixels which lie on the boundary of the tiles such that it is 8-connected and it has unit thickness. More formally, a pixel



in the digital case are described in this section. We assume that no two points or pixels of  $S = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n\}$  are 8-neighbours of each other. That is, there is a gap of at least one pixel between any pair of pixels of  $S$ . This can be achieved by multiplying by two the coordinates of each pixel of an arbitrary set  $S$ .

*Computation of DDT(S)*

Suppose the pixels of  $S$  belong to an image  $I$  of size  $m \times m$ . For every pixel  $p = (r, c)$  in  $I$ , we compute the Euclidean distance  $d_i$  between  $p$  and  $P_i$ . Find  $P_j$  such that  $d_j = \min d_i$ . If  $P_j$  is not unique, we choose the one with minimum  $j$ . We label the pixel  $(r, c)$  as  $j$ . That is,  $M(r, c) = j$ . The computational complexity in this step is  $O(nm^2)$ . Parallel

computation is possible here since each of the  $m^2$  pixels of  $I$  can be simultaneously given a label. In Figure 1,  $n = 8$  and  $m = 21$ .

*Computation of edges of  $G(S)$  and  $r_{\min}$  and  $r_{\max}$*

**Definition 4.1.** A circle that passes through at least three pixels of  $S$  but does not contain any pixel of  $S$  in its interior, is called a *Delaunay circle*.

For computing  $r_{\min}/r_{\max}$  values of an edge of  $G(S)$  we will use the following result.

**Proposition 4.1.** For every edge  $P_i P_j$  of  $G(S)$ , there will be exactly one (for a convex hull edge) or exactly two (for an interior edge) Delaunay circles passing through  $P_i$  and  $P_j$ .

For every pixel  $p = (r, c)$  in  $I$ , its 4-neighbourhood is considered. Suppose  $M(r, c) = i$ . If there are two pixels  $p_1 = (r_1, c_1)$  and  $p_2 = (r_2, c_2)$  in the neighbourhood such that  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  are 8-neighbours of each other and  $M(r_1, c_1) = j$  and  $M(r_2, c_2) = k$  with  $i \neq j \neq k$ , then  $(P_i, P_j, P_k)$  is called a *neighbouring triplet*. Note that for every edge of  $G(S)$ , there is a neighbouring triplet containing its two vertices. Thus to find all edges of  $G(S)$ , it is sufficient to find all neighbouring triplets. Each pixel of  $I$  is examined to see if it gives rise to a neighbouring

Table 1

Pixel labels	Coordinates (row,column)
1	4, 7
2	4, 14
3	11, 4
4	11, 11
5	11, 18
6	18, 4
7	18, 11
8	18, 18

*Neighbouring triplets*

(1, 2, 4),	(2, 1, 4),	(3, 1, 4),	(3, 4, 6),
(4, 1, 3),	(4, 2, 5),	(4, 3, 7),	(4, 5, 7),
(5, 2, 4),	(5, 4, 8),	(6, 3, 7),	(7, 4, 6),
(7, 4, 8),	(8, 5, 7)		

Edges of $G(S)$	Centres of Delaunay circles	$r_{\min}$	$r_{\max}$
(1, 2)	(6.64, 10.50)	3.50	$\infty$
(1, 4)	(6.64, 10.50), (8.36, 7.50)	4.03	4.39
(2, 4)	(6.64, 10.50), (8.36, 14.50)	3.81	4.39
(3, 1)	(8.36, 7.50)	3.81	$\infty$
(3, 4)	(8.36, 7.50), (14.50, 7.50)	3.50	4.95
(4, 5)	(8.36, 14.50), (14.50, 14.50)	3.50	4.95
(5, 2)	(8.36, 14.50)	4.03	$\infty$
(3, 6)	(14.50, 7.50)	3.50	$\infty$
(4, 7)	(14.50, 7.50), (14.50, 14.50)	3.50	4.95
(5, 8)	(14.50, 14.50)	3.50	$\infty$
(6, 7)	(14.50, 7.50)	3.50	$\infty$
(7, 8)	(14.50, 14.50)	3.50	$\infty$

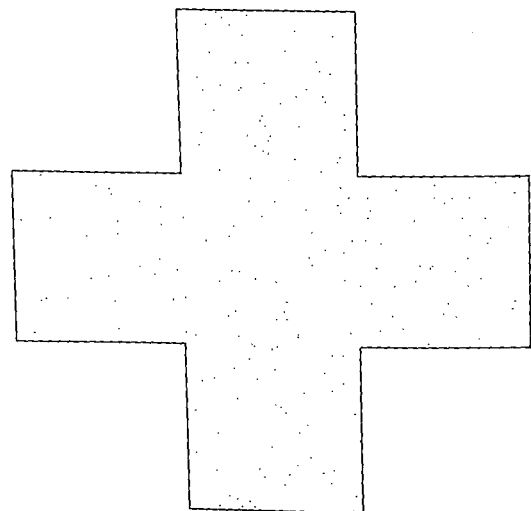


Figure 4. A '+' pattern is shown by dark lines. The dots are a random set  $S$  of 200 pixels drawn from the pattern.

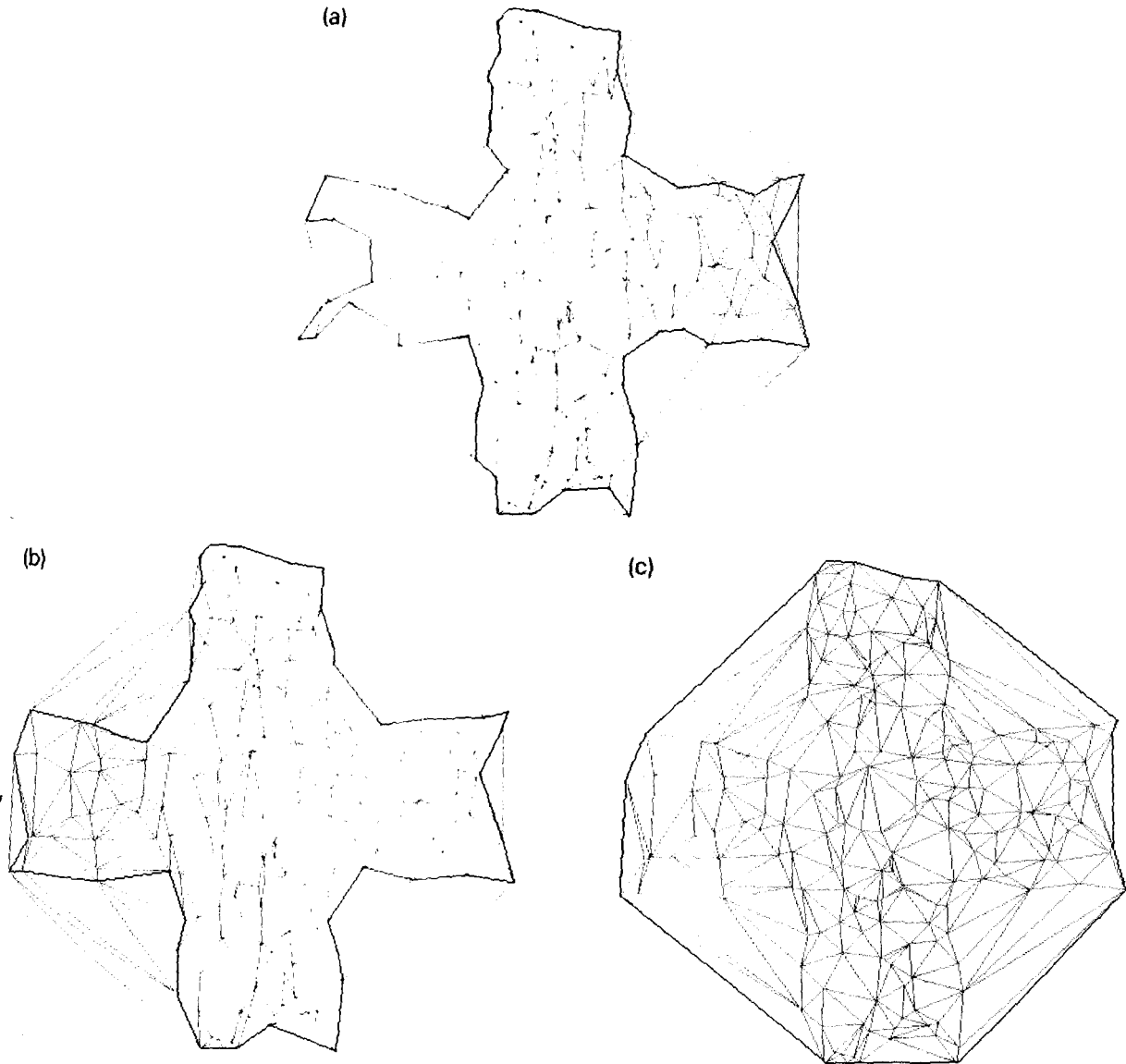


Figure 5. The  $\alpha$ -shape of  $S$  is indicated by dark lines and the rest of the Delaunay triangulation by light lines. (a), (b) and (c) show the  $\alpha$ -shapes for  $r=29, 35$  and  $189$  respectively.

triplet. For such a triplet,  $P_i$  and  $P_j$  (as well as  $P_i$  and  $P_k$ ) are Voronoi neighbours. Thus,  $P_iP_j$  and  $P_iP_k$  are listed as two edges of  $G(S)$ . Note that the circle passing through  $P_i, P_j$  and  $P_k$  is a Delaunay circle. The centre of this circle is computed and stored along with each of the two edges  $P_iP_j$  and  $P_iP_k$ . From Proposition 4.1 it is clear that either one or two such centres will be stored with each edge of  $G(S)$ .

For an edge  $P_iP_j$  of  $G(S)$ , its  $r_{min}$  and  $r_{max}$  values are computed in the following way. If there

are two centres  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  stored against the edge, then  $r_{min} = \text{half of the length of the edge } P_iP_j$  and  $r_{max} = \max(d_1, d_2)$  where  $d_t = \text{Euclidean distance between } P_i \text{ and } c_t \text{ for } t=1,2$ . If there is only one centre  $c$  associated with the edge  $P_iP_j$ , then  $r_{max} = \infty$ . If  $c$  and  $P_k$  fall on the same side of  $P_iP_j$ ,  $r_{min} = \text{half of the length of } P_iP_j$ . Otherwise,  $r_{min} = \text{Euclidean distance between } P_i \text{ and } c$ .

Given the  $DDT(S)$ , the time complexity to find the edges of  $G(S)$  and their  $r_{min}$  and  $r_{max}$  values is of the order  $O(m^2)$ . The number of the edges of

$G(S)$  are of the order of  $O(n)$  (Preparata and Shamos (1985)).

#### Computation of $A_\alpha(S)$

Above we have found all edges of  $G(S)$  and the  $r_{\min}$  and  $r_{\max}$  values for each of them. For any fixed value of  $\alpha$ , let  $r = -1/\alpha$ . To get the edges of  $A_\alpha(S)$ , we find only those edges  $e$  of  $G(S)$  such that  $r_{\min} \leq r \leq r_{\max}$ . Given  $G(S)$ , the time needed to find  $A_\alpha$  from it is of the order of  $O(n)$ .

### 5. Results and conclusions

The output after various computational steps is given in Table 1 for the set of eight pixels shown in Figure 1. For a sufficiently large  $r$ , say 5.0, there are seven  $\alpha$ -shape edges which form the convex hull of the eight pixels. We next take a cross ('+') pattern to demonstrate how our algorithm works. A random sample  $S$  (with uniform distribution) of 200 pixels are drawn from a digital cross pattern (Figure 4). In Figure 5 the  $\alpha$ -shapes of  $S$  are shown for  $r = -1/\alpha = 29, 35$  and 189. The choice of an optimal  $\alpha$  is still an open problem (Toussaint (1988)). We are currently working on this problem with the assumption of a uniform distribution.

Among the steps needed to compute  $A_\alpha$  from  $S$ , the most time consuming step is to find  $DDT(S)$  from  $S$ . However, a parallel implementation of this computation is possible. In fact, a SIMD machine will be quite suitable for the purpose. Such a machine will also be appropriate for computing  $G(S)$  from  $DDT(S)$ .

Earlier Toriwaki and Yokoi (1988) presented an algorithm to compute Voronoi diagrams on a digital plane using the  $L_1$  metric. But we have used the  $L_2$  metric for the computation of Voronoi diagrams.

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