

# 6. Level Sets and Applications in Reverse Engineering

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IMA Tutorial on Geometric Design:  
Geometries for CAGD  
Minneapolis, April 20, 2001

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# 6.1. Introduction

**Reverse Engineering:** reconstruct a computer representation of an existing object based on measured data.

Data: mostly 3D laser scanner data; point clouds with high density

Create CAD model including the recognition of simple surfaces: planes, cylinders and cones of revolution, spheres, tori, general surfaces of revolution, general cylinders, pipe surfaces (blends), ....

Important for a precise CAD-representation and manufacturing.

Here we do not deal with *free-form surfaces*.

## 6.2. Plane of regression

Fit plane to data points  $\mathbf{p}_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$ .

Plane equation in Hesse form:

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{x} + u_0 = 0, \quad \|\mathbf{u}\| = 1.$$

Distance (signed) of point  $\mathbf{p}$  to plane is  $d(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{p} + u_0$ .

Plane of regression minimizes

$$\sum_{i=1}^N d^2(\mathbf{p}_i).$$

Equivalent to minimization of the quadratic form (with  $\mathbf{u} := (u_0, \mathbf{u})$ )

$$\sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{p}_i + u_0)^2 =: \mathbf{u}^T \cdot \mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{u},$$

under the quadratic constraint

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \mathbf{u}^T \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 1.$$

leads to an eigenvalue problem

Remark: Minimization of a quadratic form

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \cdot \mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{x}$$

under a quadratic constraint

$$\mathbf{x}^T \cdot \mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{x} - 1 = 0. \quad (N)$$

Lagrange function

$$\mathbf{x}^T \cdot \mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{x} - \lambda(\mathbf{x}^T \cdot \mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{x} - 1).$$

First derivative yields Lagrange equations:

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{Q} - \lambda \mathbf{N}) \cdot \mathbf{x} &= 0, & (*) \\ \mathbf{x}^T \cdot \mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{x} - 1 &= 0. & (N) \end{aligned}$$

Linear homogeneous system (\*) has solution  $\neq 0 \iff$

$$\det(\mathbf{Q} - \lambda \mathbf{N}) = 0.$$

Zero  $\lambda_i$  of this characteristic equation (gen. eigenvalue) yields solution  $\mathbf{x}_i$  of (\*) (eigenvector). Let  $\mathbf{x}_i$  be normalized with (N), then

$$F(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{x}_i^T \cdot \mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \cdot \mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i = \lambda_i.$$

Hence: solution  $s$  is eigenvector to smallest eigenvalue  $\lambda_s$ .

# Application of plane fitting

## 1. *Normal estimation at data points.*

In first segmentation step eliminate points in highly curved regions (no well fitting plane) [Varady, Benkö, Kos]. These are likely to belong to edges or blending surfaces.

2. Gaussian image of planar face is one point. Errors in data and estimated normals: recognize planar faces by small point cluster on Gaussian sphere.

## Dimensionality filtering [Varady, Benkő, Kos]

Take concentric balls (radii  $r_1, r_2$ ) around the point to be classified and count the number of points  $(n_1, n_2)$  in the balls. Dimensionality  $D$  can be estimated as

$$D = \frac{\log \frac{n_2}{n_1}}{\log \frac{r_2}{r_1}}.$$

For  $r_1 : r_2 = 1 : 2$

point cluster:  $n_2 \sim n_1 \implies D \sim 0$ .

curve-like:  $n_2 \sim 2n_1 \implies D \sim 1$ .

area-like:  $n_i$  proportional to areas of balls  $\implies D \sim 2$ .

Point clusters appear as Gaussian images of planar faces; curve-like regions characterize developable surfaces, in particular cylinders and cones.

## 6.3. Cylinder surfaces

Cylinder surface: formed by one-parameter family of parallel lines (generators, rulings). Gaussian image is (part of) a great circle.

*Recognition:*

- A. Estimate normals  $\mathbf{n}_i$  at data points  $\mathbf{d}_i$ .
- B. Fit great circle  $c$  to Gaussian image by fitting plane through 0 to its points  $\mathbf{n}_i$  (eigenvalue problem). Cylinder surface if Gaussian image close to great circle  $c$ .

*Reconstruction:*

Rulings of the surface are parallel to the normal  $\mathbf{n}$  of the plane of  $c$ . Orthogonal projection parallel to  $\mathbf{n}$  yields planar point cloud which is approximated by a curve  $\mathbf{p}(u)$  [Lee], [Randrup]. Approximating surface is  $\mathbf{x}(u, v) = \mathbf{p}(u) + v\mathbf{n}$ . (needs trimming!)

**Right circular cylinder:** fit circle  $\mathbf{p}$  to projected data.

Alternatively, there exists a nonlinear least squares approach in [Lukacs, Marshall, Martin]. This method is also appropriate for *circular cone* and *torus* reconstruction.

We can recognize a right circular cone by its Gaussian image (small circle; does characterize a developable surface of constant slope, but most likely belongs to a cone of revolution).

Both a cone of revolution and a torus may be fitted using the kinematic method for approximation with *surfaces of revolution* [Pottmann, Randrup].

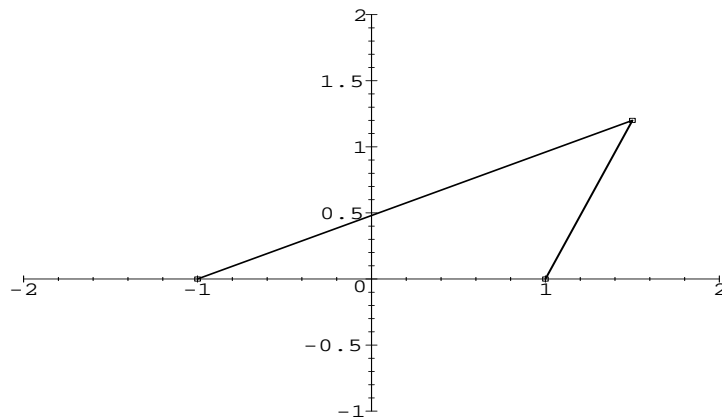
# 6.4. Level Sets – Fundamentals

Given: function  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

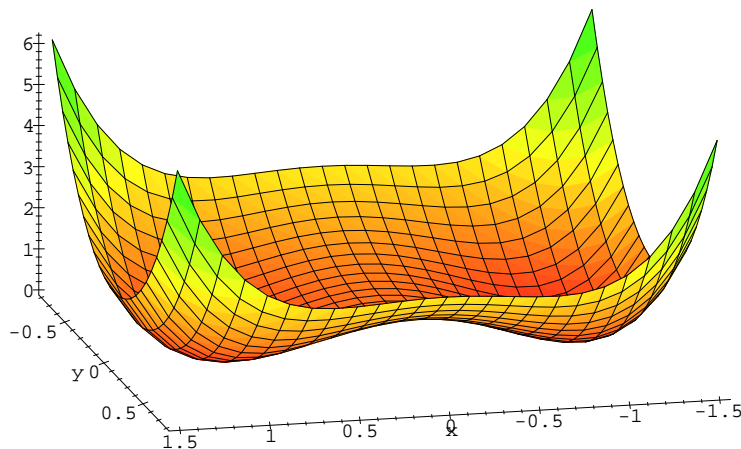
Level Sets:

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = c, \quad c = \text{const}$$

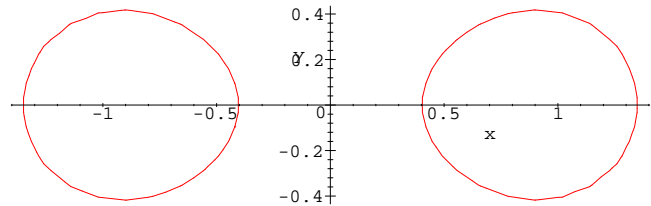
*Example 1:*  $f(x, y) = \left( (x-1)^2 + y^2 \right) \left( (x+1)^2 + y^2 \right)$



Graph of function  $f$ :

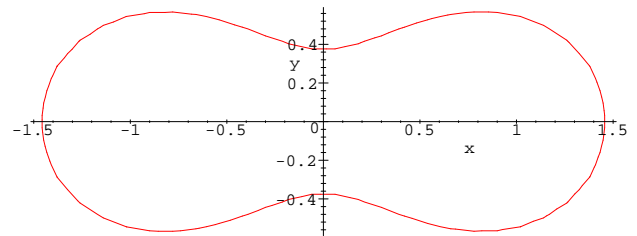
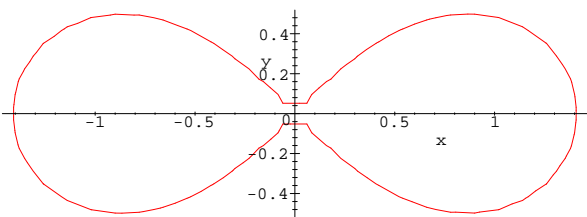


Level sets  $f(x,y) = c$  are special algebraic curves (Cassinian curves) which are real only for  $c \geq 0$ .



$c = 0$ : 2 points

$0 < c < 1$ : 2 convex curves



$c = 1$ : Lemniscate of B.  $c > 1$ : 1 convex curve

Thus: level sets are an easy tool to describe families of curves with different *topological structures*.

Tangent in a point of  $f(x,y) - c = 0$  posses the normal vector  $\nabla f = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)$ .

*Example 2:*

$$f(x, y, z) = \left( (x-1)^2 + y^2 + z^2 \right) \left( (x+1)^2 + y^2 + z^2 \right).$$

Here the level sets are surfaces of revolution. They are just the curves from example 1 rotated about the  $x$ -axis.

*Again: change in the topology of the surfaces!*

Tangent plane in a point of  $f(x, y, z) - c = 0$  has normal vector

$$\nabla f = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right).$$

# Algebraic Curves and Surfaces

If  $f$  is a *polynomial function* its level sets are called algebraic curves or surfaces, resp.

Without loss of generality:  $c = 0$

## Planar algebraic curves:

$$f(x, y) = \sum_{i+j \leq n} a_{ij} x^i y^j = 0$$

Geometric meaning of *degree*  $n$ : maximal number of intersection points with a test line.

*Examples:*

degree 1: straight line,

degree 2: conic (in general),

degree 4: e.g.: curves of example 1.

## Algebraic surfaces:

$$f(x, y, z) = \sum_{i+j+k \leq n} a_{ijk} x^i y^j z^k = 0$$

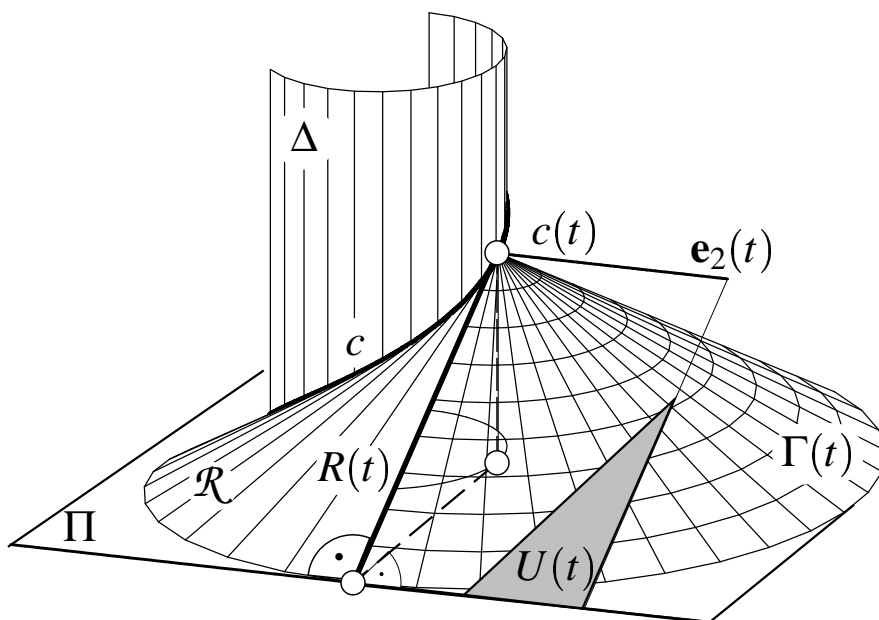
*Examples:*

degree 1: plane,

degree 2: quadrics, quadratic cones (in general).

For applications the **distance function to a curve/surface** and its level sets are of interest.

The graph of the oriented distance function to a curve  $l$  carries a family of rulings. These stem from the curve normals.

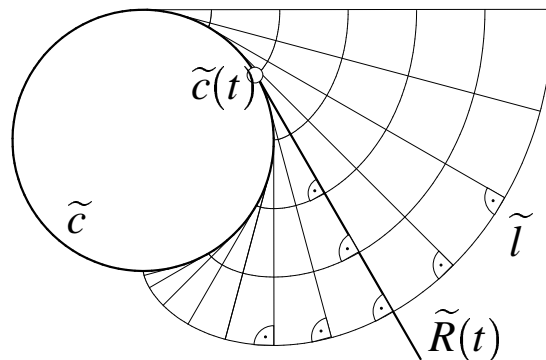


The rulings of this graph surface have an inclination of 1. They are the tangents of a twisted space curve (of constant slope).

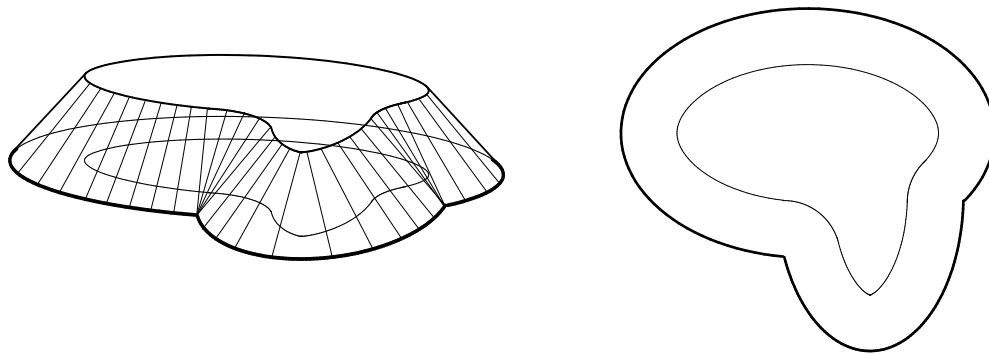
Thus:

$$\|\nabla f\| = 1$$

Top projection of the above figure:

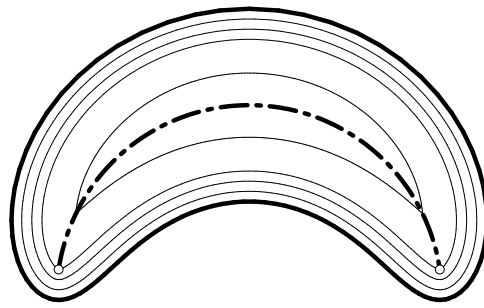


Level sets of the graph surface are *offsets* of the original curve.

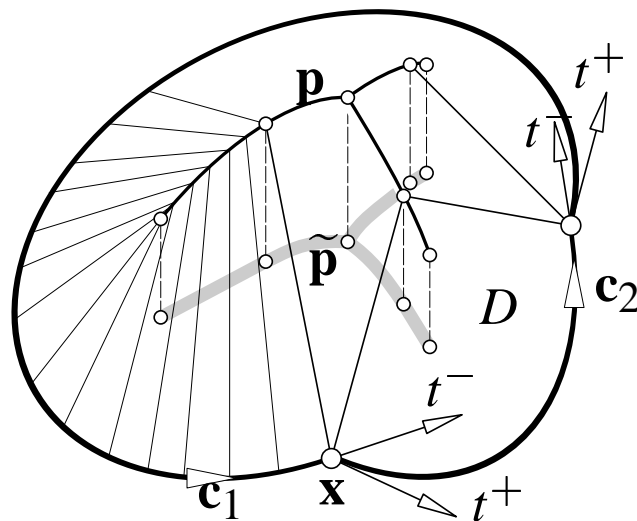


The *medial axis* of a planar region is defined as the loci of centers of maximum circles. The medial axis is related to the self-intersections of the graph surface.

Example:



Example:



**Problem:** The distance function of an algebraic curve is *not* polynomial (except the curve is a straight line). The *algebraic distance* of a point  $P(x_P, y_P)$  to the curve  $f(x, y) = 0$  is defined by  $f(x_P, y_P)$ . This algebraic distance is different from the Euclidean one.

The above considerations for distance functions of *curves* can be extended to *surfaces* straightforwardly.

## 6.5. Fitting Curves and Surfaces with Level Sets

Given: points  $P_i = (x_i, y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$

Goal: find a curve  $f(x, y) = 0$  from a chosen family of curves that approximates  $\{P_i\}$  best.

$$\sum d_i^2 \longrightarrow \min$$

## Example: Best-fitting circles and spheres

A *circle* in the plane is given by

$$f(x, y) := a(x^2 + y^2) + bx + cy + d = 0.$$

The graph surface of the 'algebraic distance function'  $f$  is a paraboloid of revolution,

$$z(x, y) = a(x^2 + y^2) + bx + cy + d.$$

For points  $(x, y)$  close to the circle, the algebraic distance is close to the geometric distance if the paraboloid intersects the plane  $z = 0$  at an angle of  $\pi/4$ . [Pratt]

$$\iff \|\nabla f\| = 1 \text{ at } f = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned}(\nabla f)^2 &= (2ax + b)^2 + (2ay + c)^2 \\ &= 4a[a(x^2 + y^2) + bx + cy] + b^2 + c^2.\end{aligned}$$

Along the curve  $f = 0$ , we have  $a(x^2 + y^2) + bx + cy = -d$  and thus  $(\nabla f)^2 = 1$  is equivalent to

$$b^2 + c^2 - 4ad = 1. \quad (N)$$

Circle fitting to points  $P_i = (x_i, y_i)$  amounts to minimization of

$$\sum_{i=1}^N f^2(x_i, y_i) = \mathbf{x}^T \cdot \mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{x}, \quad \text{with } \mathbf{x} = (a, b, c, d),$$

under the constraint (N) (eigenvalue problem).

## Example: Sphere fitting

A *sphere* is written as

$$a(x^2 + y^2 + z^2) + bx + cy + dz + e = 0.$$

Here, the normalization reads

$$b^2 + c^2 + d^2 - 4ae = 1.$$

More generally: Method of Taubin

$$\sum_i \frac{f^2(x_i)}{\|\nabla f(x_i)\|^2} \implies \min.$$

Find solution e.g. by weighted iteration.

## Further examples:

Approximation with

- \* ) cylinders of revolution,
- \* ) cones of revolution,
- \* ) tori

have been studied by Varady et al.

# Level Set Method of Osher and Sethian

Active contour  $\Gamma(t)$  (curve, surface) as a level set of a time-dependent function

$$f(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0.$$

Differentiation of  $f(\mathbf{x}(t), t) = 0$  leads to

$$f_t + f_x \frac{dx}{dt} + f_y \frac{dy}{dt} + f_z \frac{dz}{dt} = 0.$$

$$\iff f_t + \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0, \quad \mathbf{v} := \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t).$$

With  $v_n := \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \frac{\nabla f}{\|\nabla f\|}$  we obtain

## Transport Equation:

$$f_t + v_n \|\nabla f\| = 0.$$

Hamilton-Jacobi equation (1. order PDE).

Numerical solution with *finite differences*

*Example 1:*

Scene  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ;  $K$ ... curvature of  $f = 0$ .

$$K = \nabla \cdot \frac{\nabla f}{\|\nabla f\|} = \operatorname{div} \left( \frac{\nabla f}{\|\nabla f\|} \right).$$

Transport equation  $f_t + F(K)\|\nabla f\| = 0$  (\*)

Note: for the solution of (\*) the function  $F(K)$  must be extended to a neighborhood of the moving contour.

$F(K) = 1 \dots$  family of offsets

$F(K) = -K \dots$  “curvature flow”:

shrinks a simply closed curve to a “circular” point (i.e. a circle when performing an appropriate simultaneous scaling) [Grayson, 1987].

Scene  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ;  $F(K) = -K$ , where  $K$  is the mean curvature:

shrinks a convex surface to a sphere (with simultaneous scaling).

# Active Contours (2D and 3D) in Image Processing