



## Minimal box size for fractal dimension estimation

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**Abstract:** We extend Kenkel's model for determining the minimal allowable box size  $s^*$  to be used in computing the box counting dimension of a self-similar geometric fractal. This minimal size  $s^*$  is defined in terms of a specified parameter  $\varepsilon$  which is the deviation of a computed slope from the box counting dimension. We derive an exact implicit equation for  $s^*$  for any  $\varepsilon$ . We solve the equation using binary search, compare our results to Kenkel's, and illustrate how  $s^*$  varies with  $\varepsilon$ . A listing of the Python code for the binary search is provided. We also derive a closed form estimate for  $s^*$  having the same functional form as Kenkel's empirically obtained expression.

### Introduction

One of the most widely used fractal dimensions is the box counting dimension  $d_B$ . Suppose we wish to estimate  $d_B$  from  $N$  points, e.g., pixels in a 2-dimensional image. We cover the  $N$  points with boxes of side length  $s$ . If the object is 2-dimensional, the boxes are squares; if the object is 3-dimensional, the boxes are cubes; in general for an  $E$ -dimensional object, the boxes are  $E$ -dimensional hypercubes. Let  $B(s)$  be the number of boxes containing at least one of the  $N$  points. When  $s$  is sufficiently large, all points lie in one box, so  $B(s) = 1$ . As  $s$  decreases,  $B(s)$  increases or remains constant. For all sufficiently small box sizes, each non-empty box contains a single point, so  $B(s) = N$ .

The box counting dimension  $d_B$  of a geometric object is defined as (Mandelbrot 1983)

$$d_B = - \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log B(s)}{\log s}.$$

There are examples for which  $d_B$  does not exist (Falconer 2003) but in this paper we assume  $d_B$  exists. In practice,  $d_B$  is computed by evaluating  $B(s)$  for a set of  $J$  values of  $s$ , which we denote by  $s_j$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, J$ . Then, typically, a line is fitted (often using linear regression) to the  $J$  pairs  $(-\log s_j, \log B(s_j))$ , and the slope of this line is the estimate of  $d_B$ . Assume the  $s_j$  values are ordered so that  $s_1 < s_2 < \dots < s_J$ . We want  $s_J - s_1$  as large as possible, so as to minimize the error in estimating  $d_B$  from the  $J$  pairs  $(\log s_j, \log B(s_j))$ . However, we cannot make  $s_1$  arbitrarily small, since then, as noted above,  $B(s)$  approaches  $N$ , and the slope of the  $(\log s, \log B(s))$  curve approaches 0. The study of the minimal and maximal box sizes has received a great deal of attention; see, e.g., the large number of references in Kenkel (2013).

A recent paper by Kenkel (2013) introduces a simple but very useful probabilistic model to obtain a relationship be-

tween  $N$  and  $s_1$ . The model estimates the expected value of  $B(s)$  as a function of  $s$  and  $d_B$ . Then  $s_1$  is chosen to be the value at which the "local slope" of the  $(-\log s, \log B(s))$  curve deviates from  $d_B$  by no more than 0.001, where this accuracy was chosen since estimates of  $d_B$  are often expressed to three or four decimal places. Using 28 simulations in which  $s$  was decreased until the local slope is within 0.001 of  $d_B$ , Kenkel obtained the following approximation for the minimal usable box size:

$$s_1 \approx \left( \frac{N}{10} \right)^{-1/d_B}. \quad (1)$$

Since (1) was obtained numerically, and only for the accuracy 0.001, this result provides no guidance on how  $s_1$  varies as a function of the accuracy. Indeed, in many applications, e.g., in the analysis of neurons (Karperien 2013),  $d_B$  is only estimated to two decimal places. Letting  $\varepsilon$  be the desired accuracy, in this paper we generalize Kenkel's result to compute  $s_1$  for arbitrary  $\varepsilon$ . We show that  $s_1$  can be computed, for any  $\varepsilon$ , by standard one-dimensional search techniques such as binary search.

### The original model

Following Kenkel (2013), consider first the 1-dimensional case. If we randomly select  $N$  points on  $[0, 1]$  then the probability that a given box (i.e., interval) of size  $s$  does not contain any of these points is  $(1-s)^N$ . The probability that a given box of size  $s$  contains at least one of  $N$  randomly selected points is  $1 - (1-s)^N$ . Hence the expected number  $B(s)$  of nonempty boxes of size  $s$  is given by  $B(s) = [1 - (1-s)^N]/s$ .

Considering next the 2-dimensional case, if we randomly select  $N$  points on the unit square  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$  then the probability that a given box of size  $s$  does not contain any of these points is  $(1-s^2)^N$ . The probability that a given box of size  $s$

contains at least one of  $N$  randomly selected points is  $1 - (1 - s^2)^N$ . Hence the expected number  $B(s)$  of nonempty boxes of size  $s$  is given by  $B(s) = [1 - (1 - s^2)^N]/s^2$ .

Finally, consider the case where the  $N$  points are sampled from a self-similar fractal set with box counting dimension  $d_B$ . For example,  $N$  might be the total number of pixels in an image of a real-world fractal, such as a fern leaf. The expected number  $B(s)$  of nonempty boxes of size  $s$  is given by (Kenkel 2013)

$$B(s) = \frac{1 - (1 - s^{d_B})^N}{s^{d_B}}. \quad (2)$$

This equality is the basis for the analysis of the remainder of this paper.

From (2), Kenkel numerically computes the ‘‘local slope’’ of the  $(\log s, \log B(s))$  curve, where the ‘‘local slope’’  $m(s)$  is defined by  $m(s) \equiv (\log B(s + \delta) - \log B(s))/(\log(s + \delta) - \log s)$  for some small increment  $\delta$ . Then,  $s_1$  is the value for which  $m(s) + d_B = 0.001$  and empirically  $s_1$  is found to be well approximated using (1). From (1) we obtain  $s_1^{d_B} = 10/N$ . Substituting this in (2), we have

$$B(s_1) = \frac{1 - (1 - (10/N))^{d_B}}{10/N}.$$

which yields, for large  $N$ , the estimate  $B(s_1) = N/10$ . This means no box size  $s$  should be used, in the estimation of  $d_B$ , for which  $B(s) > N/10$  (Kenkel 2013).

### The generalized model

In this section, we generalize the original model by determining the minimal box size when the constant 0.001 described in Section 2 is replaced by a positive parameter  $\epsilon$ . Rather than work with a local slope of the  $(\log s, \log B(s))$  curve, we work with an actual derivative, which can be obtained in closed form. Using the chain rule for derivatives, we have

$$\frac{d \log B(s)}{d \log s} = \left( \frac{d \log B(s)}{d s} \right) \left( \frac{d s}{d \log s} \right) = \quad (3)$$

$$\left( \frac{d \log B(s)}{d s} \right) \left( \frac{d \log s}{d s} \right)^{-1} = \left( \frac{d \log B(s)}{d s} \right) s.$$

From (2), taking the derivative of  $\log B(s)$  we have

$$\frac{d \log B(s)}{d s} = \quad (4)$$

$$\frac{d_B N s^{-1} (1 - s^{d_B})^{N-1} - d_B s^{-d_B-1} (1 - (1 - s^{d_B})^N)}{(1 - (1 - s^{d_B})^N) s^{-d_B}}.$$

Combining (3) and (4) yields

$$\frac{d \log B(s)}{d \log s} = \frac{d_B N (1 - s^{d_B})^{N-1} - d_B s^{-d_B} (1 - (1 - s^{d_B})^N)}{(1 - (1 - s^{d_B})^N) s^{-d_B}}. \quad (5)$$

Denoting the right hand side of (5) by  $F(s)$ , our task is to find the value  $s^*$  such that  $F(s^*) = -d_B + \epsilon$ . For  $s < s^*$  we have  $F(s) > -d_B + \epsilon$ , so such box sizes should not be used in the estimation of  $d_B$ . Thus  $s^*$  is the minimal usable box size. As a first step towards calculating  $s^*$ , define

$$\alpha \equiv (1 - s^{d_B})^{N-1}. \quad (6)$$

While  $\alpha$  is actually a function of  $s$ , for notational simplicity we write  $\alpha$  rather than  $\alpha(s)$ . The equation  $F(s) = -d_B + \epsilon$  can now be rewritten as

$$\frac{d_B N \alpha - d_B s^{-d_B} (1 - \alpha(1 - s^{d_B}))}{(1 - \alpha(1 - s^{d_B})) s^{-d_B}} + d_B = \epsilon. \quad (7)$$

Dividing both sides by  $d_B$  yields

$$\frac{N \alpha - s^{-d_B} (1 - \alpha(1 - s^{d_B}))}{(1 - \alpha(1 - s^{d_B})) s^{-d_B}} = \frac{\epsilon}{d_B} - 1. \quad (8)$$

Define  $v \equiv (\epsilon/d_B) - 1$ . Multiplying the numerator and denominator of the left hand side of (8) by  $s^{d_B}$  yields  $N \alpha s^{d_B} - 1 + \alpha - \alpha s^{d_B} = v(1 - \alpha + \alpha s^{d_B})$ , which simplifies to  $\alpha s^{d_B}(N - 1 - v) = (v + 1)(1 - \alpha)$ . Recalling the definition of  $v$ , more algebra yields

$$\frac{N d_B}{\epsilon} - 1 = \left( \frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} \right) s^{-d_B}. \quad (9)$$

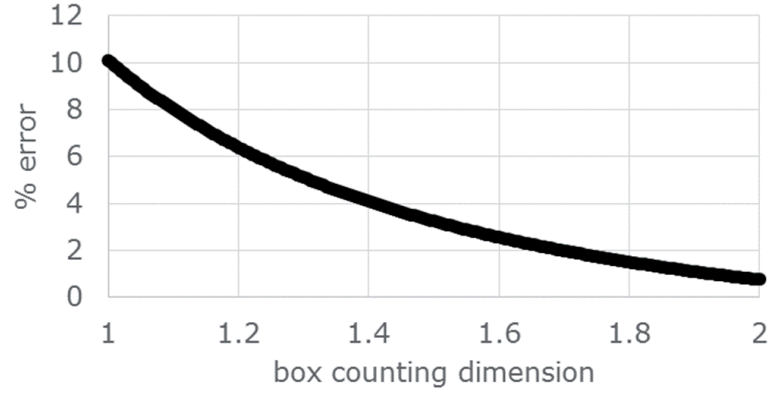
Finally, from (9) and the definition (6) of  $\alpha$ , we obtain an implicit equation for  $s^*$ :

$$\left( (1 - s^{d_B})^{1-N} - 1 \right) s^{-d_B} = \epsilon^{-1} N d_B - 1. \quad (10)$$

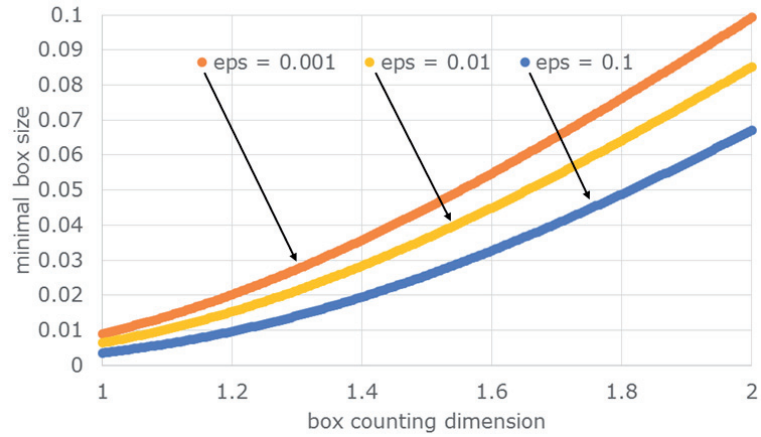
Equation (10) is exact; no approximations were made. The parameter  $\epsilon$  appears only in the right hand side, which is independent of  $s$ .

We compute a solution  $s^*$  of (10) using binary search over  $[0, 1]$ ; a code listing is provided in the Appendix. The binary

**Figure 1.** Percent error in the minimal usable box size for  $N=1000$  and  $\varepsilon=0.001$ , for  $1 \leq d_B \leq 2$ .



**Figure 2.** Minimal usable box size for  $N=1000$  and for three values of  $\varepsilon$ , for  $1 \leq d_B \leq 2$ .



search is halted when the width of the interval containing  $s^*$  is less than  $1.0 \times 10^{-7}$ , which takes 24 iterations. For  $N=1000$  and  $\varepsilon=0.001$ , the percent error  $100(s_1 - s^*)/s^*$ , where  $s_1$  is the estimate defined by (1), is plotted in Figure 1 as a function of  $d_B$  for  $1 \leq d_B \leq 2$ . The error in the approximation (1) is highest (about 10%) when  $d_B=1$ .

Since, as noted in Section 1, in many applications  $d_B$  is estimated to only two decimal places, Figure 2 compares, for  $N=1000$ , the value  $s^*$  for  $\varepsilon=0.1$ ,  $\varepsilon=0.01$ , and  $\varepsilon=0.001$ , all for the same range  $1 \leq d_B \leq 2$ .

### Approximating the minimal usable box size

We now derive a closed form approximation to  $s^*$ . Defining  $x = s^{d_B}$ , we rewrite (10) as

$$x^{-1} \left( (1-x)^{1-N} - 1 \right) = \varepsilon^{-1} N d_B - 1. \quad (11)$$

We have  $x < 1$  since  $s < 1$  and  $d_B > 0$ . Ignoring terms of degree four and higher, the Taylor series expansion of  $(1-x)^{1-N}$  yields  $(1-x)^{1-N} \approx 1 - (1-N)x + (1-N)(-N)x^2/2 - (1-N)(-N)(-N-1)x^3/6$ . For large  $N$  we have  $(1-x)^{1-N} \approx 1 + Nx + (N^2/2)x^2 + (N^3/6)x^3$ . Substituting this in (11) yields

$$x^{-1} \left( (1-x)^{1-N} - 1 \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\approx x^{-1} \left( 1 + Nx + (N^2/2)x^2 + (N^3/6)x^3 - 1 \right) \\ &= N + (N^2/2)x + (N^3/6)x^2 \\ &= \varepsilon^{-1} N d_B - 1 \approx \varepsilon^{-1} N d_B. \end{aligned}$$

Dividing by  $N$ , we obtain  $(N^2/6)x^2 + (N/2)x + (1 - \varepsilon^{-1}d_B) \approx 0$ . Using  $1 - \varepsilon^{-1}d_B \approx -\varepsilon^{-1}d_B$  we get

$$x = \frac{-\frac{N}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{N^2}{4} - 4\frac{N^2}{6}(-\varepsilon^{-1}d_B)}}{(2/6)N^2} \approx \frac{N\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\varepsilon^{-1}d_B}}{(1/3)N^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sqrt{\frac{6d_B}{\varepsilon}}.$$

By definition,  $x = s^{d_B}$ , so  $s^{d_B} = (1/N)\sqrt{(6d_B/\varepsilon)}$ . Solving for  $s$  yields an approximation  $\tilde{s}$  for the minimal usable box size:

$$\tilde{s} = \left( N \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon}{6d_B}} \right)^{-1/d_B}. \quad (12)$$

The estimate  $\tilde{s}$ , which is a decreasing function of  $\varepsilon$ , looks identical to (1), except that the empirically derived constant 0.1 in (1) is replaced by  $\sqrt[3]{(\varepsilon/(6d_B))}$  in (12). However,  $\tilde{s}$  is not a good approximation to  $s^*$ . For example, with  $N=1000$ ,  $d_B=2$ , and  $\varepsilon=0.001$ , we have  $s^* \approx 0.099$  while

$\tilde{s} \approx 0.331$ . The error arises from the third order Taylor series approximation, since for  $x = (s^*)^2$  we have  $(1-x)^{1-N} \approx 19700$  while  $1 + Nx + (N^2/2)x^2 + (N^3/6)x^3 \approx 219$ . Thus, while (12) yields the functional form obtained by Kenkel, in practice  $s^*$  should be computed using (10) and binary search.

### Concluding remarks

We generalized Kenkel's model for finding the minimal usable box size  $s^*$  for computing the box counting dimension. For box sizes smaller than  $s^*$ , the slope of the  $(-\log s, \log B(s))$  curve flattens out, and deviates by more than a specified accuracy  $\varepsilon$  from  $d_B$ . Whereas Kenkel considered only the choice  $\varepsilon = 0.001$ , we derived an exact implicit equation for  $s^*$  for any  $\varepsilon$ . Binary search was used to actually compute  $s^*$ , and a Python implementation is provided in the Appendix. We also used the implicit equation to derive a closed form approximation for  $s^*$  having the same functional form as Kenkel's empirically obtained expression.

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### Appendix: Binary search code

Python code used to implement the binary search method used in Section 3 to compute the  $s^*$  solving (10). The code performs binary search over the interval  $[0, 1]$  to compute  $s^*$  to an accuracy of  $10^{-7}$  for  $\varepsilon = 0.001$  and for  $d_B$  from 1 to 2, in increments of  $1/200$ . The variable Estimate is the estimate given by (1).

```

Binary Search
1  import math
2  N = 1000.
3  epsilon = .001
4  for i in range(201):
5      d = 1.0 + float(i)/200.
6      RHS = -1.0 + N*d/epsilon
7      Estimate = (0.1*N)**(-1.0/d)
8      low = 10**(-8)
9      high = 1.0
10     while (low + 10**(-7) <= high):
11         s = (low + high)/2.0
12         x = s**d
13         LHS = ((1.0-x)**(1.0-N) - 1.0)/x
14         if LHS < RHS:
15             low = s
16         else:
17             high = s
18     error = 100*(Estimate-s)/s
19     print " d ", d, " s ", s, " error ", error

```