

# **patternize: An R package for quantifying color pattern variation**

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## 1 **Summary**

- 2 1. The use of image data to quantify, study and compare variation in the colors and patterns of  
3 organisms requires the alignment of images to establish homology, followed by color-based  
4 segmentation of images. Here we describe an R package for image alignment and segmentation  
5 that has applications to quantify color patterns in a wide range of organisms.
- 6 2. `patternize` is an R package that quantifies variation in color patterns obtained from image  
7 data. `patternize` first defines homology between pattern positions across specimens either  
8 through manually placed homologous landmarks or automated image registration. Pattern  
9 identification is performed by categorizing the distribution of colors using an RGB threshold,  $k$ -  
10 means clustering or watershed transformation.
- 11 3. We demonstrate that `patternize` can be used for quantification of the color patterns in a  
12 variety of organisms by analyzing image data for butterflies, guppies, spiders and salamanders.  
13 Image data can be compared between sets of specimens, visualized as heatmaps and analyzed using  
14 principal component analysis (PCA).
- 15 4. `patternize` has potential applications for fine scale quantification of color pattern phenotypes  
16 in population comparisons, genetic association studies and investigating the basis of color pattern  
17 variation across a wide range of organisms.

## 18 **Introduction**

19 Natural populations often harbor great phenotypic diversity. Variation in color and pattern are of  
20 the more vivid examples of morphological variability in nature. Taxa as diverse as spiders (De  
21 Busschere *et al.* 2012; Cotoras *et al.* 2016), insects (Katakura *et al.* 1994; Williams 2007), fish  
22 (Endler 1983; Houde 1987), amphibians and reptiles (Calsbeek *et al.* 2008; Allen *et al.* 2013;  
23 Balogová & Uhrin 2015; Rabbani *et al.* 2015), mammals (Hoekstra *et al.* 2006; Nekaris & Jaffe  
24 2007) and plants (Clegg & Durbin 2000; Mascó *et al.* 2004) display natural variation in pigment  
25 or structural colorations. The distribution of colors in specific patterns play an important role in  
26 mate preference (Endler 1983; Kronforst *et al.* 2006), thermal regulation (Forsman *et al.* 2002),  
27 aposematism (Rojas *et al.* 2015) and crypsis (Nosil & Crespi 2006) and represent evolutionary  
28 adaptations that in many cases have promoted diversification within lineages.

29 Measuring phenotypic variation in organismal color patterns can provide insights into their  
30 underlying developmental and genetic architecture (Klingenberg 2010). However, precisely  
31 quantifying color pattern variation is challenging. Consistent comparisons of color patterns from  
32 images requires the (1) homologous alignment and (2) color-based segmentation of the images.  
33 Homologous alignment can be performed by transforming one image onto another. This  
34 transformation can be obtained from manually placed homologous landmarks or advanced image  
35 registration techniques, which can be stored and utilized to align color patterns extracted from the  
36 images. Image segmentation concerns the categorization of pixels by color. Previously, examples  
37 of color pattern quantification have been extensively developed for *Heliconius* butterflies (Color  
38 Pattern Modelling (CPM) in Le Poul *et al.* 2014) and primates (Allen *et al.* 2015). However, these  
39 applications are currently not easily accessible for use in other organisms. Similarly, advanced  
40 solutions are available for biomedical image analysis (Modat *et al.* 2010a; Schindelin *et al.* 2012,  
41 2015), but are not tailored towards quantifying color pattern variation.

42 Here, we present `patternize`, an approach to quantification of color pattern variation from 2D  
43 images using the R statistical computing environment (R Development Core Team 2013). The  
44 package provides utilities to extract, transform and superimpose color patterns as well as  
45 downstream analysis (Fig. 1). The provided R functions combine single transformation and color  
46 extraction approaches. While transformations are obtained from manually placed homologous  
47 landmarks (`patLanRGB()`, `patLanK()` or `patLanW()`) or automated image registration

48 (`patRegRGB()`, `patRegK()` or `patRegW()`), color-based segmentation of the patterns is  
49 performed by using threshold RGB (Red, Blue and Green) values (`patLanRGB()` or  
50 `patRegRGB()`), unsupervised classification of pixels into a set of clusters (`patLanK()` or  
51 `patRegK()`) or watershed transformation (`patLanW()` or `patRegW()`). By extracting and  
52 aligning color patterns from image data of large numbers of samples, `patternize` provides  
53 quantitative measures of variation in color patterns that can be used for population comparisons,  
54 genetic association studies and investigating dominance and epigenetic interactions of color pattern  
55 variation in a wide range of organisms. We demonstrate the utility of the package with *Heliconius*  
56 butterflies and more challenging examples from guppy fish, Galápagos wolf spiders and  
57 salamanders.

58

## 59 **Alignment**

60 Superimposing color patterns to quantify variation in their expression requires the homologous  
61 alignment of the anatomical structures they occur in. Image transformations for this alignment can  
62 be obtained from landmark based transformations or image registration techniques.

63 *Landmark based transformations:* Landmark based transformations use discrete anatomical points  
64 that are homologous among individuals in the analysis. Non-rigid, but uniform transformations  
65 from one set of ‘source’ landmarks to a set of ‘target’ landmarks such as *affine* transformations  
66 include translation, rotation, scaling and skewing (Hazewinkel 2001). Additionally, non-uniform  
67 changes in shape between the source and target landmarks can be accounted for by storing the  
68 transformation as if it were ‘the bending of a thin sheet of metal’, the so-called *thin plate spline*  
69 (TPS) transformation (Duchon 1976). Both the affine and TPS transformation can be calculated  
70 from sets of landmarks (Fig. 2A). We implemented these landmark transformations using utilities  
71 provided by the R package `MORPHO` (Schlager 2016). Landmarks can be transformed using an  
72 arbitrarily chosen reference sample or an average landmark shape obtained from a set of samples.  
73 The average landmark shape is obtained by means of Procrustes superimposition of the samples  
74 (Goodall 1991).

75 *Image registration:* Alternative to landmark based methods, fast and accurate image registration  
76 techniques are available for calculating a transformation from a source to target image based on

77 either intensity patterns or features such as points, lines or contours present in the images  
78 (Goshtasby 2005) (Fig. 2A). We use a computation efficient intensity-based image registration  
79 technique implemented in the NiftyReg image registration library (Translational Imaging Group  
80 (TIG) 2016) and made available in R through the `RNiftyReg` package (Clayden *et al.* 2017). This  
81 methodology calculates the global transformation of an image by finding correspondences between  
82 sub-volumes of the two images (Modat *et al.* 2010a,b). Correspondence is assessed using intensity-  
83 based similarity measures and used to calculate the transformation parameters through a least  
84 trimmed square (LTS) regression method (Modat *et al.* 2010a,b). The number of corresponding  
85 sub-volumes to be included or considered as outliers in the calculation of the transformation can  
86 be varied by the user. The global transform calculated by NiftyReg can be rigid (i.e. including  
87 translation, rotation and scaling) or affine (i.e. translation, rotation, scaling and skewing).

88

## 89 **Color pattern extraction**

90 Studying variation in color patterns requires the correct identification of the color boundaries.  
91 `patternize` provides functionality to categorize the distribution of colors using either an RGB  
92 threshold, *k*-means clustering or watershed transformation.

93 *RGB threshold*: Color boundaries can be extracted from images or the trait of interest using an  
94 RGB threshold (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). By selecting pixels within a specified color range (specified as  
95 RGB value and offset) we provide a basic image segmentation approach that works well for  
96 extracting distinct color patterns. Additionally, for distinct color patterns, the RGB value can be  
97 iteratively recalculated as the average for the extracted color pixels. This latter approach permits  
98 patterns to be easily combined when extracted from sets of images that may have been taken under  
99 different light conditions resulting in differences in intensity and contrast.

100 *k-means clustering*: We implemented an unsupervised approach for color-based image  
101 segmentation by using *k*-means clustering (Fig. 4 and Fig. 5) (Hartigan & Wong 1979). This  
102 algorithm assigns pixel RGB values to *k* clusters by iteratively assigning each pixel in the image to  
103 the RGB cluster that minimizes the distance between the pixel and the cluster centers. Cluster  
104 centers are recalculated each iteration by averaging all pixels in the cluster until convergence. We  
105 implemented *k*-means clustering using the R package `stats` (R Development Core Team 2013).

106 Clusters are first obtained from a reference image and then used as initial cluster centers for the  $k$ -  
107 means clustering of the subsequently analyzed images. This allows the program to match clusters  
108 that represent the same color pattern in different images. For  $k$ -means clustering, the number of  
109 clusters must be defined manually. For organisms with less distinct pattern boundaries, this is best  
110 done by testing different numbers of clusters and choosing a number that best assigns pixels to  
111 color patterns.

112 *Watershed transformation:* The watershed transformation is a powerful tool for image  
113 segmentation (Fig. 6) (Beucher 1991). The concept of watershed treats the image as a topographic  
114 map by calculating a gradient map with high values in parts of the image where pixel values change  
115 abruptly (Fig. 6B). Subsequently, a flooding process propagates pattern and background labels  
116 guided by the gradient map. Continuing the flooding until pattern and background labels meet,  
117 determines the watershed lines (ridges in the topography) that are used to segment the image (Fig.  
118 6C). We implemented the watershed algorithm with utilities from the R package `imager`  
119 (Barthelme 2017) that is based on the image processing library `CImg` (Tschumperle 2004). In our  
120 implementation, the pattern and background labels are chosen by manually identifying at least one  
121 pattern and one background pixel (at least one for each separate pattern and background element).  
122 This manual assignment helps the user to overcome potential differences in image lightning, glare  
123 or overlap between pattern and background RGB values.

124

## 125 **Output**

126 The main `patternize` functions generate a list of extracted color patterns from each image  
127 stored as a `raster` object (Hijmans 2016). These extracted patterns can be summed and visualized  
128 as heatmaps or used to calculate the relative area of the color patterns. To better characterize  
129 variation in color patterns among samples, we implemented linear principal component analysis  
130 (PCA). For an extracted color pattern, PCA can be performed on the binary representation of the  
131 aligned color pattern rasters obtained from each sample (Fig. 3-5). In this matrix, pixel coordinates  
132 that have the color of interest in a sample have a value of one, whereas pixel coordinates without  
133 the color have the value zero assigned. The variance-covariance matrix obtained from the binary  
134 matrix for a color is suitable for PCA, which allows visualizing the main variations in color pattern  
135 boundaries among or between groups of samples, as well as the predicted color pattern changes

136 along the principal component (PC) axis (Johnson & Wichern 2007). In the visualization of the  
137 predicted color pattern changes, positive values present a higher predicted expression of the pattern,  
138 whereas negative values present the absence of the pattern. Note that parts of the color patterns that  
139 are expressed in all considered samples have a predicted value of zero, as these pixels do not  
140 contribute variance for the PCA analysis.

141

## 142 **Examples**

143 *RGB threshold pattern extraction in Heliconius butterflies:* We demonstrate the utility of image  
144 alignment and RGB threshold extraction in the forewing band area of *Heliconius erato* populations  
145 (Fig. 2). *Heliconius* butterflies from the Neotropics display great diversity in forewing band shape,  
146 which is mainly defined by expression of the *wntA* gene (Van Belleghem *et al.*; Martin *et al.* 2012).  
147 Expression of red pigments in the wing scales is on its turn defined by expression of the *optix* gene  
148 (Reed *et al.* 2011). Comparison of the landmark and image registration approach applied to the red  
149 forewing band variation in *H. erato hydara* shows that both methods perform well (Fig. 2B). The  
150 TPS transformation used in the landmark approach resulted in a better fit to the internal structures  
151 of the wing (i.e. wing veins). The slight offset between the color pattern and vein position in the  
152 image registration approach likely resulted from a bias in the linear transformation towards aligning  
153 the outline of the wing and not including non-uniform changes in shape within the wing.

154 Next, we performed automated image registration and RGB threshold color extraction on the same  
155 forewing band area of *H. erato erato*. In this region of the wing, *H. e. erato* lacks *optix* expression  
156 and, thus, red scales. However, naturally occurring hybrids between *H. e. erato* and *H. e. hydara*  
157 show *optix* expression in the forewing band area (Fig. 3). With this example, we demonstrate the  
158 ability to compare homologous, but differing colored pattern elements (i.e. yellow versus red). The  
159 PCA analysis and relative area of the extracted patterns allow to differentiate the two groups of  
160 butterflies and indicate overexpression of the color pattern in hybrids.

161

162 *Automated registration and k-means clustering in guppies and spiders:* To assess the general utility  
163 of our application across taxa, we applied the automated registration and *k*-means clustering  
164 approach to groups with more complex body shape and color pattern variation; guppy fish and  
165 Galápagos wolf spiders. Males of the guppy (*Poecilia reticulata*) vary greatly in their ornamental

166 patterns that have evolved in response to both natural and sexual selection. Several mutants have  
167 been described among male guppies that affect color pattern expression. Manually quantifying the  
168 differences in color pattern expression among these mutations has provided valuable insights into  
169 the developmental basis and interactions of the involved genes (Kottler *et al.* 2013). Here, we  
170 summarized and compared the black and orange color patterns expressed in wild type (WT) versus  
171 *golden* mutants of *P. reticulata* males using images obtained from Kottler *et al.* 2013 (images were  
172 used from backcrosses obtained from *golden blue* mutant females with heterozygous males from  
173 crossing *golden blue* with inbred wild-derived Cumána populations) (Fig. 4). All images were  
174 aligned to a target image using image registration and colors were *k*-means clustered into seven  
175 groups. Before *k*-means color clustering, the background was masked using the outline of the guppy  
176 in the target image. Our analysis of the black and orange color cluster strongly matched the  
177 description presented in Kottler *et al.* 2013, demonstrating the absence of a posterior orange spot  
178 in *golden* mutants backcrossed into a Cumána population genetic background and more diffuse and  
179 shifted black ornaments in the *golden* mutants.

180 Wolf spiders of the genus *Hogna* inhabit high elevation and coastal habitats on the Galápagos  
181 islands Santa Cruz and San Cristobal (De Busschere *et al.* 2010). Despite the phylogenetically close  
182 relationship of the high elevation and coastal populations within both islands, morphometric  
183 analysis, including measurements of color intensity, have highlighted striking parallel phenotypic  
184 divergence between the high elevation and coastal species between the islands (De Busschere *et al.*  
185 2012). Coastal species appear to be paler with a more conspicuous median band on the carapace  
186 compared to high elevation species. Here, we demonstrate the robustness of automated image  
187 registration by aligning the highly variable images of the wolf spiders (Fig. 5). By focusing on  
188 correspondence between the images, the automated image registration technique manages to align  
189 the spider's carapace, which is morphologically the most consistent part in the images. By assigning  
190 colors in the spiders to only two clusters, we show a similar pattern as described in De Busschere  
191 *et al.* (2012) in which the coastal species show a consistently broader and more conspicuous median  
192 band on the carapace and pale lateral bands compared to the high elevation species.

193  
194 *Watershed pattern extraction in fire salamanders:* The glare that is usually present in images of  
195 amphibians can make it challenging to correctly extract the color patterns. Additionally, some  
196 pattern elements may be difficult to identify based on color alone. To overcome these difficulties,



197 we illustrate the watershed segmentation using images of fire salamanders obtained from Balogová  
198 & Uhrin (2015) (Fig. 6). The fire salamander (*Salamandra salamandra*) is common to Europe and  
199 is black with yellow, orange or red spots or stripes. The watershed approach confidently identifies  
200 the orange pattern boundaries in the analyzed images. Combining this color pattern extraction  
201 approach with aligning the images allows users to identify regions in the salamander's body where  
202 spots or stripes are more consistently expressed.

203

## 204 **Concluding remarks and recommendations**

205 *Alignment:* `patternize` provides an unbiased, fast and user-friendly approach for color pattern  
206 analysis that is applicable to a wide variety of organisms. `patternize` takes jpeg images as input,  
207 which can be downsampled to decrease computation times. While the landmark based approach is  
208 computationally slightly faster, automated image registration removes the need for labor-intensive  
209 landmark setting. Moreover, image registration reduces any variation introduced by differences in  
210 how users manually place image landmarks. However, because automated registration uses  
211 intensity patterns in the images, it can be highly sensitive to artifacts in the background and care  
212 should be taken by standardizing the experimental setup. For cases in which the background differs  
213 starkly from the studied object, functionality is included that allows users to remove the background  
214 by providing RGB cutoff values. The package also allows users to review the image registration  
215 progress to assess the quality of the automatic registration.

216 *Color pattern extraction:* Variation in photographic conditions complicates color pattern  
217 extraction. The option for iteratively recalculating the RGB value and defining the start clusters for  
218 k-means clustering from a reference image can improve color pattern extraction under these  
219 conditions. However, setting correct RGB or cluster parameters may impact results and should be  
220 optimized for each analysis. Appropriate RGB and offset values can be obtained, for instance, by  
221 extracting RGB values from image pixels or areas of interest (e.g. use `sampleRGB()`). Using few  
222 or many k-means clusters may, respectively, result in grouping colors of interest or assigning  
223 multiple clusters to a single pattern of interest. Finally, in contrast to RGB threshold color  
224 extraction and k-means clustering, watershed transformation takes into account the spatial  
225 proximity of pixels. Doing so, the interactive identification of pattern versus background in the

226 watershed transformation provides a way to extract color patterns that is robust to variation in  
227 photographic conditions.

228 *Output:* The output of the main `patternize` functions are `raster` objects (Hijmans 2016) that  
229 provide for a wide range of downstream analyses. As demonstrated by the examples, we provide  
230 functions to intersect (mask) the extracted patterns with defined outlines, sum or subtract the  
231 patterns to plot heatmaps, calculate the relative area in which the pattern is expressed and carry out  
232 principal component analysis (PCA). Overall, we hope this R package provides a useful tool for  
233 the community of researchers working on color and pattern variation in animals.

234

235

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243

### 244 **Data accessibility**

245 The package and descriptions of the functions and parameters are available as library(“`patternize`”)  
246 on CRAN ([cran.r-project.org/web/packages/patternize](http://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/patternize)). The code, ongoing developments and data  
247 and code used for the examples can be accessed through GitHub  
248 ([github.com/StevenVB12/patternize](https://github.com/StevenVB12/patternize); [github.com/StevenVB12/patternize-examples](https://github.com/StevenVB12/patternize-examples)). Bug reports  
249 and feature requests can be sent using the GitHub issue tracker.

250

### 251 **Author contributions**

252 SMVB and BAC conceived the development of the package. SMVB wrote the code. SMVB, RP and BAC  
253 wrote the manuscript. HOZ helped improving the code. SMVB, BAC, FH and RP conceived data  
254 acquisition. HOZ, FH, CDJ and WOM contributed helpful comments for building the package and writing  
255 the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

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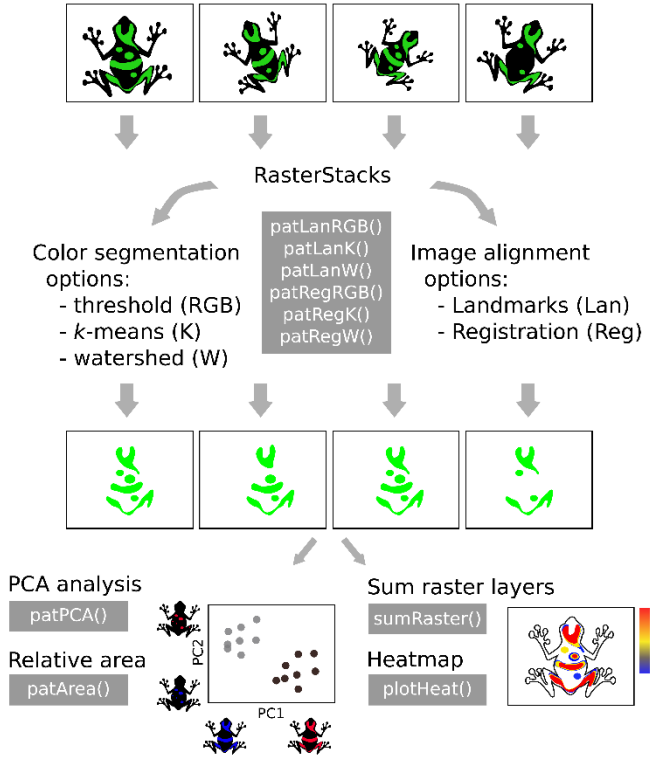
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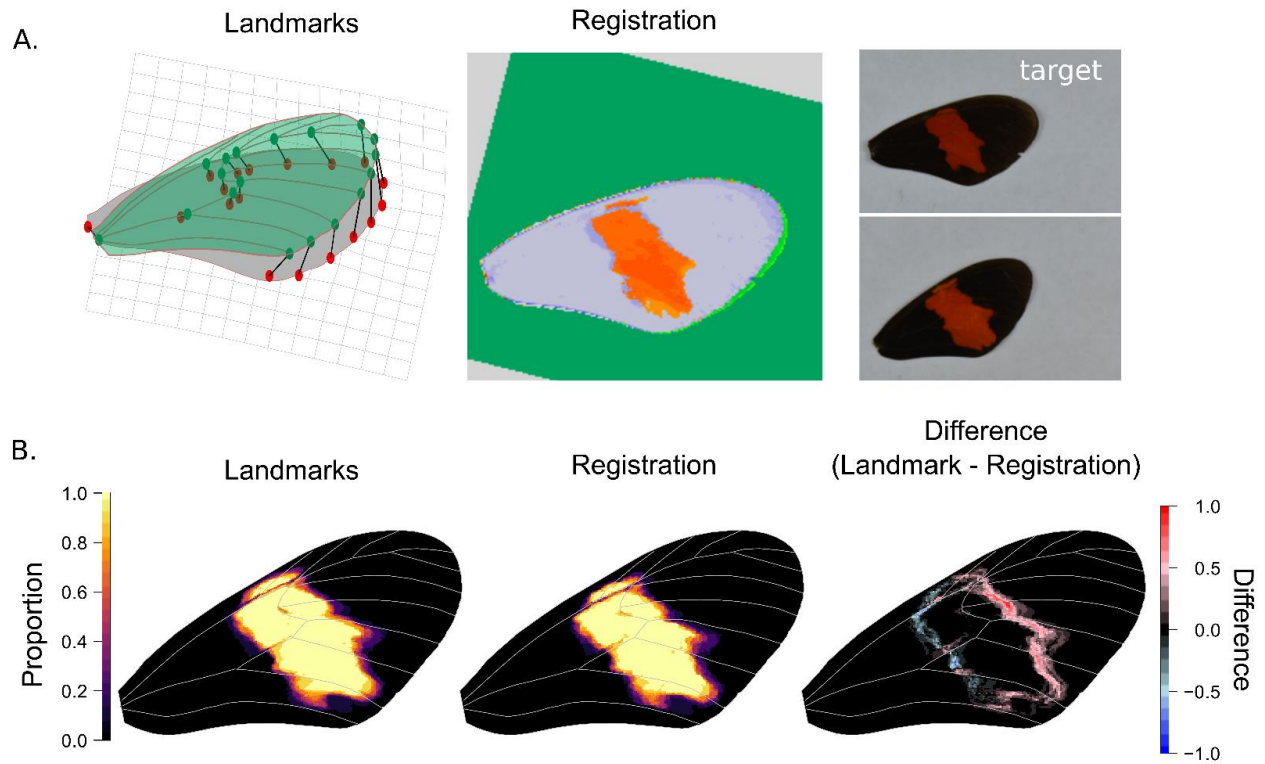
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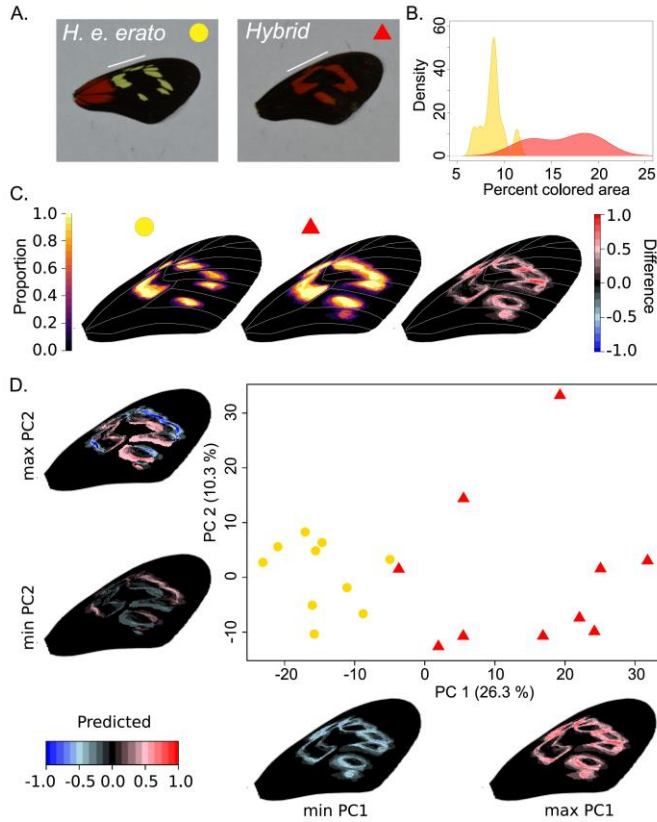
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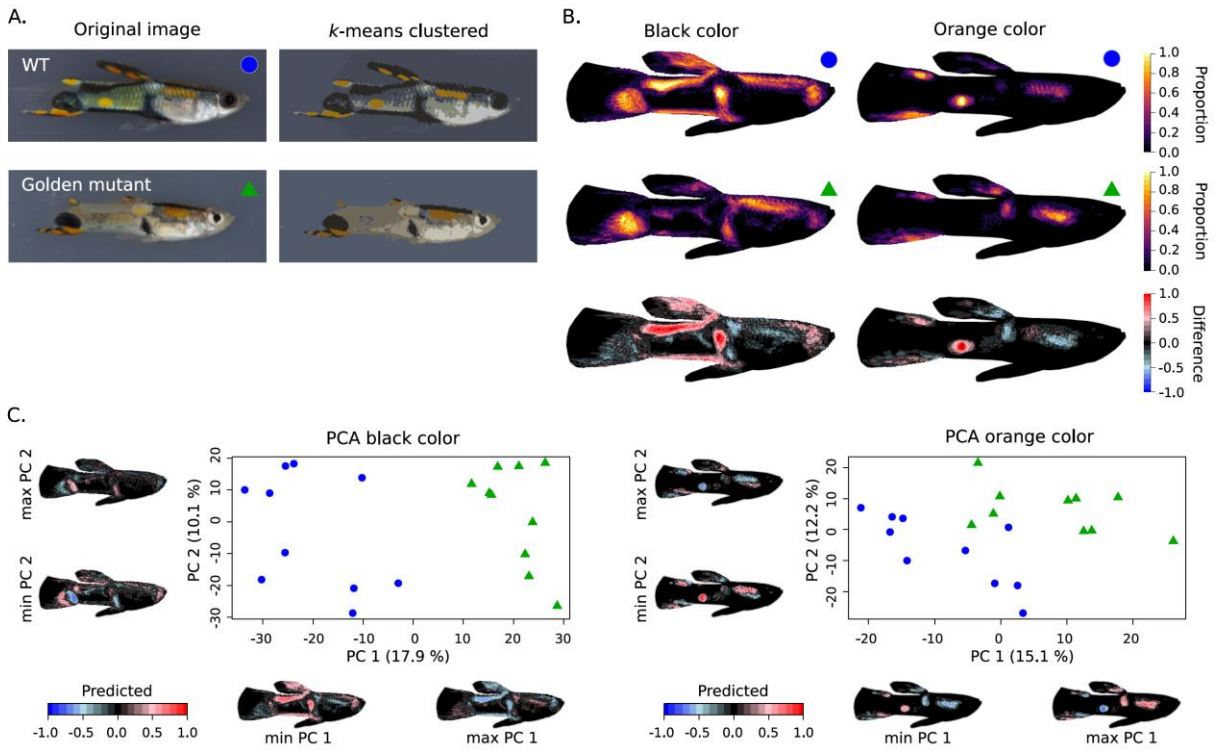
353  
 354 Fig. 1. Overview of main `patternize` functions and functionality. Images can be aligned using homologous  
 355 landmarks (Lan) or automatic registration (Reg), which aligns images using common intensity patterns. Colors can be  
 356 extracted using an RGB threshold (RGB), *k*-means clustering (K) or by identifying watershed lines (W). The resulting  
 357 extracted patterns can be summed and visualized as heatmaps or used for PCA analysis and calculating the relative  
 358 area of the color patterns.



359  
 360 Fig. 2. Comparison of image transformation using landmarks or automated registration for quantification of color  
 361 pattern variation. (A.) Illustration of transformation strategies of a source (green) image to a target (gray) image. The  
 362 thin plate spline (TPS) transformation from the source to target landmarks is illustrated by the deformed grid and can  
 363 be used to transform the image or extracted color pattern. Image registration attempts to find common patterns in  
 364 images and align the source (green) image to the pixel coordinate system of the target (gray) image. Note the extracted  
 365 color pattern in red. (B.) Example comparison between landmark approach for color pattern alignment for ten butterfly  
 366 wings of male *Heliconius erato hydara*. For the landmark approach, we used TPS transformation. For the image  
 367 registration approach, we used affine transformation and 75% of sub-volumes included as inliers.



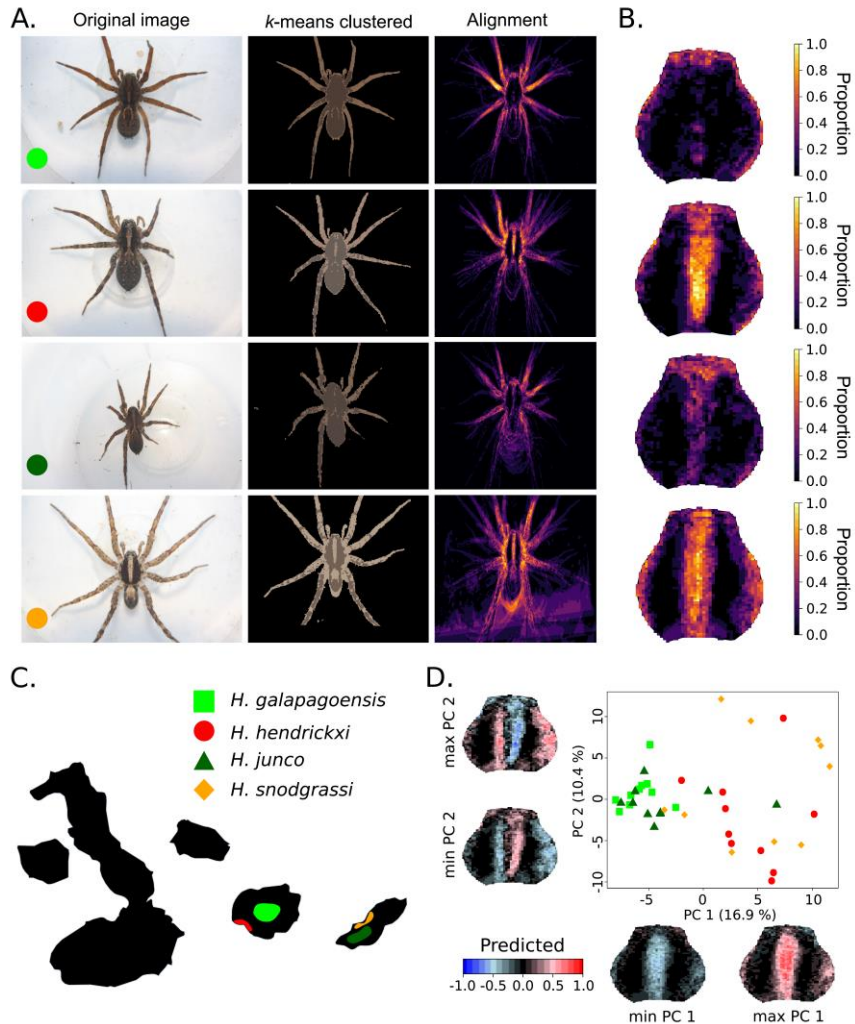
368  
 369 Fig. 3. Example of image registration and threshold color extraction in the forewing band area of *Heliconius erato*  
 370 *erato* (n = 10) and hybrid (n = 10) butterflies (French Guiana). (A.) Example of original images with a white line  
 371 indicating the forewing band area. The hybrid represents a naturally occurring backcross in a hybrid zone with *H. e.*  
 372 *hydara* (see Fig. 1) that results in red color expression in the forewing band. (B.) Density plot showing the probability  
 373 to find a sample with a certain percentage of colored area in the wing expressing yellow in *H. e. erato* and red in the  
 374 hybrid. (C.) Visualizing the variation in color pattern expression in a heatmap shows a consistently larger pattern in  
 375 the hybrid phenotypes (*H. e. erato*: left, hybrid: middle, hybrid minus *H. e. erato*: right). (D.) Principal component  
 376 analysis (PCA) confirms that the main axis of variation (PC1) is related to size of the pattern (yellow or red in *H. e.*  
 377 *erato* and hybrids, respectively) and separates the *H. e. erato* and hybrid samples. The second principal component  
 378 (PC2) axis highlights more complex shape differences in the forewing band among the samples as demonstrated by  
 379 the shape changes of the color patterns along the principal component axis.



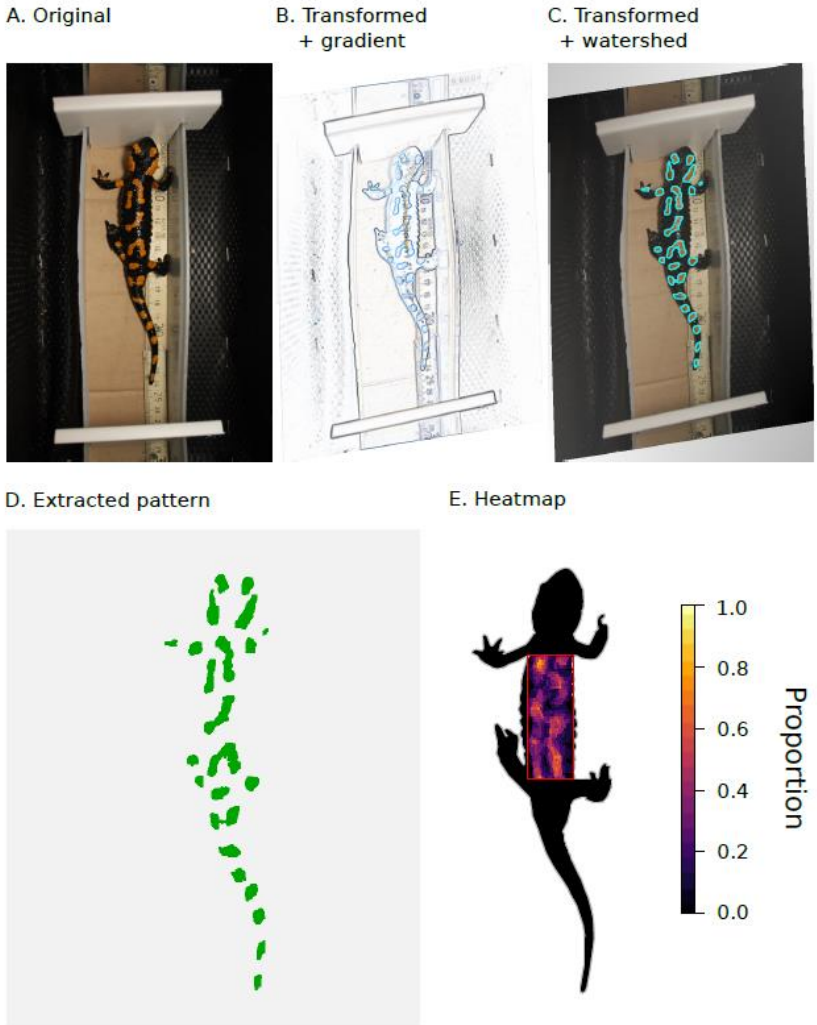
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381 Fig. 4. Example of image registration and *k*-means clustering of colors in guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*). (A.) Original  
 382 image of a wild type (WT) and *golden* mutant guppy and their *k*-means clustered representation (clusters = 7). (B.)  
 383 Heatmaps and difference between WT (n=10) and golden mutant (n=10) for black and orange color clusters. (D.) PCA  
 384 analysis of the pixel matrices obtained for the black (left) and orange (right) color clusters. Images were obtained with  
 385 permission from Kottler *et al.* (2013).





386  
 387 Fig. 5. Example of image registration and *k*-means clustering of the color pattern of Galápagos wolf spiders (*Hogna*).  
 388 (A.) From left to right: example of original image (10 images were used for each species), *k*-means clustered image (*k*  
 389 = 3) with removed background, and alignment of the lightest color. (B.) Heatmap corresponding to the lightest color  
 390 cluster focused on the carapace. (C.) Map of the Galápagos islands with colors indicating the distribution of four *Hogna*  
 391 species, two high elevation species (light and dark green) and two coastal species (red and orange). (D.) PCA analysis  
 392 of the pixel matrices obtained for the lightest color cluster demonstrates that the coastal (*H. hendrickxi* and *H.*  
 393 *snodgrassi*) and high-elevation (*H. galapagoensis* and *H. junco*) species cluster phenotypically together and share,  
 394 respectively, the presence and absence of a pale median band on their carapace. Images were obtained with permission  
 395 from De Busschere *et al.* (2012).



396  
 397 Fig. 6. Example of watershed transformation for color pattern extraction in fire salamanders (*Salamandra salamandra*).  
 398 (A.) Original image. (B.) Image gradient transformed to a reference shape using landmarks. (C.) Transformed image  
 399 with watershed lines highlighted. (D.) Extracted patterns using the watershed lines. (E.) Heatmap of orange patterns  
 400 extracted from ten male fire salamanders. Areas outside the red box were masked. Images were obtained with  
 401 permission from Balogová & Uhrin (2015).