1 **Extending morphological pattern segmentation to 3D voxels** 2 Short Communication Tarmo K. Remmel 3 4 Faculty of Environmental and Urban Change, York University, N430 Ross Building, 5 4700 Keele Street, Toronto, Ontario, Canada, M3J 1P3, +1-416-736-2100 ext. 22496, remmelt@yorku.ca, https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6251-876X; 6 7 8 9 Abstract 10 This short communication introduces the logic, demonstrates its use, and 11 identifies the availability of a new tool that extends the traditional 2D morphological 12 segmentation of binary raster data into the 3-dimensional realm of voxels. A 13 combination of 3-dimensional array data and network graph theory are implemented to 14 facilitate the logical parsing of identified 3-dimensional features into their mutually 15 exclusive constituent morphological classes. All processing is performed in the R16 environment, providing the ability for anyone to perform the demonstrated analyses on 17 their own data. The only input requirement is a binary (1 = feature of interest, 0)18 otherwise) 3-dimensional array, where each voxel of interest is then classified into 19 classes called outside, mass, skin, crumb, antenna, circuit, bond, and void that 20 correspond their 2-dimensional equivalents of background, core, edge, islet, branch, 21 loop, bridge, and perforation. An additional class called the void-volume identifies 22 voxels belonging to the empty space within the object of interest. The work helps to 23 bring pattern metrics into the 3-dimensional world, particularly given the reliance on 24 adjacency and connectivity assessments.

26 Extending morphological landscape pattern segmentation to 3D voxels

27

28 Introduction

29 This short communication describes the logic and implementation of a new tool 30 that extends conventional two-dimensional (2D) morphological segmentation (Soille 31 and Vogt 2009), from a grid of pixels, into a three-dimensional (3D) space represented 32 by voxels. Voxels are pixels that have been extruded to have a volume (Popescu and 33 Zhao 2008), which is achieved by extending a pixel's footprint along a third axis. In this 34 paper, to keep things simple, voxels will be used to refer to perfect cubes that are 35 arranged in a regular fashion into a 3D array (imagine a Rubik's cube), with each voxel 36 representing a discrete volume of geographic space. In principle, each of the three 37 dimensions of a voxel may differ.

38 Spatial data, regardless of its thematic content, is regularly represented in 2D 39 vector or raster formats that provide a representation for the distribution of one or more 40 thematic classes within a geographic extent. These have traditionally been subjected to a 41 variety of numeric and geometric assessments of pattern (Riitters et al. 1995; Uuemaa et 42 al. 2009; Frazier and Kedron 2017). Much of the development has been for 2D data, 43 though some 3D metrics have been developed; these tend to focus on composition 44 rather than configuration, thus ignoring the importance of adjacency (Kedron et al. 45 2019). Some 2D landscape concepts, such as porosity (Remmel, 2018) and 46 fragmentation (Fahrig et al., 2019), could translate relatively easily into 3D (Petras et 47 al., 2017), but overall implementation of 3D metrics has been slow, likely due to the 48 complexity of measuring 3D adjacencies. Advances in the 3D domain have typically 49 involved voxel analysis of lidar point clouds (Wu et al., 2013) or the inference of 3D

parameters through estimation or modelling (Liu et al. 2017), but not for morphological
segmentation of existing feature representations.

52 The increasing availability and access to lidar data (Szpakowski and Jensen 53 2019) and the implementation of Structure from Motion (SfM) for the extraction of 3D 54 point clouds from planar images (Guerra-Hernández et al. 2018), are helping to forge 55 new landscape analytical directions among landscape ecologists and other users of 56 spatial data. These data clouds and volumetric data further emphasize the importance 57 and necessity of 3D analytical tools. The method presented in this short communication 58 achieves the extension of morphological segmentation tools (Vogt et al. 2007; Soille 59 and Vogt 2009) into the third dimension by focusing purely on the adjacency, 60 connectivity, and relative positioning of voxels belonging to a common object. The 61 presented tool segments voxel data into mutually exclusive 3D morphological element 62 classes. 63 Morphological spatial pattern segmentation (Vogt et al. 2007; Soille and Vogt 64 2009) provides an intuitive and tangible alternative to landscape metrics. During 65 morphological segmentation, pixels are assigned to mutually exclusive categories based 66 on the structural role they play in relation to other pixels. The work presented here 67 builds on the foundational work introduced with the Morphological Spatial Pattern 68 Analysis (MSPA) generic image analysis framework that is described by living 69 documents available from https://forest.jrc.ec.europa.eu/en/activities/lpa/mspa/. 70 Morphological segmentations can be used to summarize spatial patterns (Ye et al. 2020) 71 or feed further analyses with software environments such as the GuidosToolbox (Vogt 72 and Riitters 2017). Morphological segmentation allows the consistent parsing of each 73 cell's contribution to the overall structure of an object and maintains consistency in the 74 minimum mapping unit for analysis. Therefore, the challenges of deciding among

75 landscape metrics (Riitters et al. 1995; Cushman et al. 2008), identifying metric value 76 expectations (Remmel and Csillag 2003; Neel et al. 2004), or the handling of challenges 77 stemming from non-normal metric distributions to compare landscapes (Remmel and 78 Fortin 2013) can be avoided, and their misuses (Li and Wu 2004) minimized. 79 True 3D data from lidar and SfM are contributing to a growing data stockpile 80 with x, y, z coordinates and are relatively easily represented as volumetric data with 81 voxels as the base spatial unit. It is also possible to consider the z-axis as time rather 82 than a vertical axis (x, y, t), and thus use a 3D morphological segmentation to facilitate 83 temporal pattern analysis. This extends the potential of feature or phenomenon based 84 change tracking with hyper-local measures of configuration (Remmel 2020), pattern-85 based identification of landscape types with multi-thematic data (Nowosad and 86 Stepinski 2021), or to extend forest disturbance recovery analyses (Pflugmacher et al. 87 2014; White et al. 2017). 88 The 2D segmentation of binary raster patterns into primary morphological 89 elements (Soille and Vogt 2009) results in a minimum of seven foreground (core, edge, 90 islet, branch, bridge, loop, and perforation) and three background classes (background, 91 border-opening, and core-opening) which are described in the MSPA documentation. 92 MSPA can return up to 25 classes, but this level of segmentation is not considered for 93 implementation here currently. This type of segmentation allows secondary assessments 94 of variable states and distributions within classes or comparisons among morphological 95 elements, where the morphology acts as a structural factor, or grouping variable. The 96 advancement presented in this short communication is the extension of this partitioning 97 logic to 3D, resulting in nine corresponding volumetric morphological classes (Table 1). 98 The new 3D classes extend the primary seven foreground classes and two of the 99 background classes.

2D Morphological Element	3D Morphological Element
Background	Outside
Core	Mass
Edge	Skin
Islet	Crumb
Branch	Antenna
Loop	Circuit
Bridge	Bond
Core-Opening	Void-volume
Perforation	Void

Table 1. A mapping of 2D morphological element terminology onto corresponding 3D 101 102

104 Methods

classes.

105 Implementation of the 3D morphological segmentation is achieved by

106 $morph3d^{1}$, and associated functions written for R (R Core Team 2021) that also depend

107 on critical helper functions imported from packages rgl (Adler and Murdoch 2021),

108 reshape2 (Wickham 2007), stringr (Wickham 2019), and igraph (Csárdi and Nepusz

109 2006). The only input required is a 3D binary array where 1 = voxels belonging to a

110 feature, class, or phenomenon of interest; all other voxels must be coded as 0 (Figure

111 1a). The features of interest can form any number of contiguous clusters of theoretically

112 any number of voxels. Though in print, Figure 1 is static, all visualizations produced by

113 morph3d are interactive 3D environments that can be rotated, zoomed, and examined

114 from virtually any observation point, providing functionality that greatly improves the

- 115 visualization and interpretation of 3D data.
- 116

¹ morph3d is a complete software tool and will be available via CRAN (Comprehensive R Archive Network) for free and open distribution in the package morph. A copy of the code can also be obtained from the author.





Figure 1. A volumetric spatial feature of interest shown in green (a) and its partitioning into discrete objects (b). Each voxel is tracked with a unique identification code and each discrete object in (b) is also coded with a separate unique object identifier and corresponding colour.

124 The segmentation logic described here follows an algorithm that guarantees 125 mutual exclusivity in the classification of each voxel into a morphological class. To 126 initialize the process, each voxel is assigned a unique ID and then the complete volume 127 is inset into a larger array (that has been expanded outward in each direction by 1 voxel 128 and whose IDs are initialized with 0; this ensures that all feature voxels in the input data 129 will have a proper edge identified in subsequent processing. To tabulate all pairs of 130 adjacent voxels (six neighbours in 3D), the original array is shifted 1-voxel dimension 131 in each of the 6 possible directions (up, down, left, right, forward, backward), each time 132 recording the voxel ID pairs formed between the original shifted data and the larger 133 array of unshifted data. Collectively this is summarized into a table containing a listing 134 of all neighbours for each voxel. The table is reprocessed to produce a matrix having two columns, such that each row contains two voxel IDs (as column values) that form a 135 136 single neighbour-pair of voxels that exist within the volume. All duplicate pairs are 137 reduced to a single entry since the directionality of the neighbour structure is not

important (e.g., voxel neighbours 101—100 and 100—101 are identical). This matrix of neighbouring pairs is then converted into an undirected network graph (Rahman 2017) with tools provided in the *igraph* package for *R*. Graph theory allows voxels to be considered neighbours with other voxels if they share a face. Mapping, maintaining, and assessing 3D connectivity is explicitly recorded within graphs that permit spatial associations to be easily tested and for morphology to be assessed.

144 Morphological processing commences in a sequence of eight main steps. First, 145 voxels with IDs of 0 are deleted from the graph which is subsequently decomposed to 146 produce a sub-graph for each disconnected sub-object within the input data (e.g., for 147 each object depicted in Figure 1b). Unique object IDs are assigned to the voxels of each 148 separate object to allow counting of the individual objects within the dataset and to 149 associate individual voxels with unique and discrete objects. The green feature in Figure 150 1a is comprised of 2 discrete objects (Figure 1b) and are independently processed. The 151 ability to view such data in an interactive 3D viewer allows occluded voxels to be 152 viewed by rotating the view.

153 The second step requires the identification of mass voxels. Since these represent 154 the inner core of a 3D object, any mass voxel must be neighboured on all 6 sides by 155 another feature voxel (Figure 2). For any voxel in the graph with degree = 6, a 156 morphology code of 2 is assigned to the corresponding voxel. These morphology codes 157 are recorded in a separate 3D array that will continue to be updated as each 158 morphological class is processed, terminating only when each morphological class has 159 been assessed and each voxel has been assigned one of the 9 possible morphological 160 classes. The third step requires that each unclassified vertex that neighbours a mass be 161 classified as *skin* (Figure 2) and given the morphology code of 3. Given the logic to 162 identify *mass* voxels, these two morphological classes are straightforward to identify,

163 and no mass voxels will ever be without full enclosure by skin voxels. A flood-filling 164 algorithm is used to distinguish skin voxels (external edges) from void voxels (internal 165 edges). Computationally, the object of interest is immersed within a volume of -1 coded 166 voxels that differentiates the empty spaces within the structure that remain coded as 0. 167 Skin voxels that neighbour voxels coded with -1 remain as skin, while those that 168 neighbour voxels coded with 0 become reclassified as *voids*. The voxels forming the 169 hole are further labelled as *void-volume* to identify that they are holes within the object 170 of interest, but not explicitly part of it.

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Figure 2. A simple 3D object (a) is comprised of 7 voxels. The green voxel is a mass
since it is bounded on all 6 sides by semi-transparent black voxels. The same object is
drawn in exploded form (b), more clearly showing the mass voxel at the center.

The fourth step is to identify *crumbs*, those discrete objects that contain no *mass* voxels, and assign them the morphology code 4. Each discrete object is considered in turn and is tested for the presence of *mass* voxels and whether it makes any connections to *skin* voxels. Connections to skin voxels indicate that the object is a one of several possible types of connectors and not a *crumb*; these will be processed in the next set of steps. All remaining voxels that have not been classified into a morphological class by this point are assigned the generic morphology class 5, indicating that they are

185 The fifth step is to identify *antenna*, or protrusions from a *mass* that connect to 186 only a single point on a mass. A mass may have more than one antenna, and a discrete 187 object may comprise more than a single mass; thus, identification of connected voxels 188 that contain no mass, but connect to a skin only once, requires an iterative looping and 189 decomposition of the graph and repeated tests of how many voxels in candidate 190 antennae connect to skin. When the number of connections is one, then the 191 corresponding connected voxels are given the morphology code 6. 192 The sixth step is to identify *circuit* voxels as those connectors that connect a 193 mass to itself along a connected set of voxels. Once *circuit* voxels are identified, the 194 remaining connectors, are by definition, bond voxels - those connectors that join two or 195 more discrete *mass* clusters within a single object. All neighbours to the *skin* voxels that 196 are not *mass*, or *antennae*, are added to a list of possible *circuit* voxels and their 197 adjacencies are tested to identify whether connected voxels are also candidates. If these 198 contender voxels are connectors, they are coded as circuits and the remaining 199 connectors are classified as *bond* morphology and given the code 7. The *bond* 200 connectors identify those voxels that connect at least two masses within an object. 201 The seventh step is to assign a morphology code of 1 to all remaining voxels to 202 identify them as being on the *outside* of the feature of interest. The original input data, 203 the corresponding network graph object, the final morphological segmentation, and 204 maps of discrete object and voxel IDs are organized and packaged into a single list 205 object along with summary statistics (Table1) and returned to the user. The summary 206 statistics provide the number of voxels and their relative percentages that have been 207 allocated to each of the morphological classes. Production of a final plot is optional for 208 the interactive viewing the resulting morphological classification (Figure 3). Plots of 209 each morphological element class are also available options.

211	Table 1.	Output summary	statistics	stemming from	the morphological	l segmentation of
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the feature presented in Figure 1a.

Code	Description	NVoxels	Percentage
1	Outside	758	75.8
2	Mass	69	6.9
3	Skin	130	13.0
4	Crumb	2	0.2
5	Circuit	18	1.8
6	Antenna	7	0.7
7	Bond	4	0.4
8	Void-volume	2	0.2
9	Void	10	1.0



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Figure 3. The final 3D morphological segmentation of the data in Figure 1a, shown

- 218 from two different perspectives (a, b). The *void* and *void-volume* classes are not directly
- 219 visible because they are contained within the green upper mass cluster.
- 220

Each discrete object is stored as a sub-graph with unique voxels identified by

- 222 unique IDs. Orthogonal connectivity among feature voxels is maintained as undirected
- 223 neighbours that connect adjacent voxel IDs (Figure 4). This paired representation
- 224 permits efficient 3D visualization with the shaded voxels across the entire input data
- 225 while also facilitating rapid adjacency and connectivity testing with existing graph
- theory tools. The graph theory tools for assessing adjacency for answering questions

- such as "is this voxel connected to that voxel?" or "which are this voxel's spatial
- 228 neighbours?" are particularly powerful in this context. Graph theory also allows objects
- 229 with multiple *mass* cores to be quickly assessed together for connector classes that
- extend outwards from *skin* voxels.



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Figure 4. An example of a discrete object is shown here enlarged (left), with its corresponding graph (right). The numbers represent the unique voxel IDs, and while the two views are rotated relative to each other, the topological relationships are maintained.

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238 From Figure 4, it is evident that the mass voxel is 772, and that from the graph 239 representation, its skin neighbours must be 773, 771, 782, 762, 672, and 872 (which can 240 be discerned from the block figure but with greater difficulty). The network does not 241 connect to the outside voxels, which were coded as zeros (0) initially and deleted from 242 the overall network graph that contained all sub-objects. This simplicity also allows the 243 number of discrete objects to be counted and processed separately. Figure 5 shows the 244 individual morphological elements for the feature of interest in Figure 1, such that the 245 individual components are visible without being occluded by the simultaneous display 246 of all elements simultaneously.



249 Figure 5. Individual plots for the morphological elements: (a) mass, (b) skin, (c) crumb,

250 (d) expanded mass cores – used for distinguishing circuits from bonds, (e) antenna, (f)

251 *circuit*, (g) *bond*, (h) *void*, and (i) *void-volume*.

252

253 Discussion

Any spatial feature that can be represented as a 3D binary array of voxels can

255 now be automatically segmented into its constituent morphological elements with this

- tool, thereby extending the capability previously available only for 2D data. The
- algorithm will assign each voxel of interest to one of 9 mutually exclusive
- 258 morphological elements (outside, mass, skin, crumb, antenna, circuit, bond, void-

259 volume, or void). The implementation of this segmentation allows 3D data to be 260 partitioned into categories analogous to their 2D counterparts. These structural classes 261 can be used to describe the relative contributions to shapes, objects, or features, but also 262 be used to partition further analysis within and among these classifications. Examples of 263 ecologically-relevant analyses include comparing species richness between mass and 264 skin classes, testing whether mass habitat is connected to other mass habitat, or 265 comparing mass-to-skin ratios among objects. 266 Implementation of the 3D morphological segmentation procedure is in an open 267 and free software environment and the code is being made publicly available via CRAN 268 (<u>https://cran.r-project.org/</u>) and is available from the author. While variations exist on 269 how the segmentation functionality is applied and displayed, most users will be able to 270 perform the segmentation by providing the one required binary 3D array of feature 271 voxels (e.g., *incube*) and making a single function call: 272 273 outobj <- morph3d(DATACUBE=incube, FINALPLOT=TRUE)</pre> 274 275 The output object, *outobj* in this case, is a list object that contains the input data 276 cube, the network graph object, 3D array objects for unique voxel IDs and discrete 277 object IDs, the morphological segmentation as an array of 3D voxels, and a data frame 278 containing the summary statistics of the segmentation among other state variables. The 279 output ensures that related data remain together and connected, allowing for context and 280 simplicity in further analyses, while ensuring an organized workspace. 281

282 **Declarations**

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- 286 Conflicts of interest/Competing interests
- 287 There are no conflicts of interest or competing interests
- 288 Ethics approval
- 289 Not applicable.
- 290 *Consent to participate*
- 291 Not applicable.
- 292 Consent for publication
- As the only author of this short communication, I provide consent for publication.

294 Availability of data and material

- 295 Not applicable.
- 296 Code availability
- 297 The code for achieving 3D morphological segmentation is being prepared for free and
- open distribution on the Comprehensive R Archive Network. The code is also availablefrom the author of this short communication.
- 300 Authors' contributions
- 301 I conceived the idea of 3D morphological segmentation, developed the logic, wrote the
- 302 code, and developed this short communication without external assistance.
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