

# MAT 280: Harmonic Analysis on Graphs & Networks

## Lecture 5: Graph Laplacian Eigenvalues II

*Naoki Saito*

Department of Mathematics  
University of California, Davis

October 10, 2019

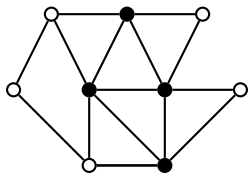
- 1 Isoperimetric Number
- 2 Isospectrality; Spectral Characterization of Graphs
- 3 Applications to Morphological Feature Extraction from Dendritic Trees
  - Motivation
  - Eigenvalue-Based Features
  - Conclusions & Future Plans

# Outline

- 1 Isoperimetric Number
- 2 Isospectrality; Spectral Characterization of Graphs
- 3 Applications to Morphological Feature Extraction from Dendritic Trees
  - Motivation
  - Eigenvalue-Based Features
  - Conclusions & Future Plans

# Isoperimetric Number

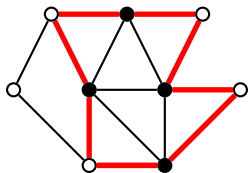
- Let  $S \subset V(G)$  be a nonempty subset of vertices of  $G$ .
- $\partial S := \{e = (u, v) \in E(G) \mid u \in S, v \notin S\}$ , which is called the *boundary* of  $S$ .



$$S = \{\bullet\}, S^c = \{\circ\}$$

# Isoperimetric Number

- Let  $S \subset V(G)$  be a nonempty subset of vertices of  $G$ .
- $\partial S := \{e = (u, v) \in E(G) \mid u \in S, v \notin S\}$ , which is called the *boundary* of  $S$ .



$$S = \{\bullet\}, S^c = \{\circ\}$$

## Isoperimetric Number . . .

- The *Cheeger ratio* for  $S \subset V$  is defined as

$$h(S) := \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- For the example graph in the previous page:  $|S| = 4$ ;  $|S^c| = 5$ ;  $|\partial S| = 8$ . Hence,  $h(S) = 8/4 = 2$ .
- The Cheeger ratio tells us the *quality of the cut* of  $V$  into  $S \cup S^c$ : if  $S$  and  $S^c$  are well-balanced, i.e.,  $|S| \approx |S^c|$ , and  $\exists$  few edges connecting  $S$  and  $S^c$ , then  $h(S)$  is small.
- The *isoperimetric number* (or a.k.a. the *Cheeger constant*)  $i(G)$  of  $G$  is defined as

$$i(G) := \inf_{S \subset V; S \neq \emptyset} \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- This definition is exactly the same as the one given in my previous lecture, but is in a more symmetric form.
- The version for  $L_{\text{rw}}$  replaces  $|S|$  and  $|S^c|$  by  $\text{vol}(S)$  and  $\text{vol}(S^c)$  where  $\text{vol}(S) := \sum_{v \in S} d(v)$ . That version has also been studied extensively.

## Isoperimetric Number . . .

- The *Cheeger ratio* for  $S \subset V$  is defined as

$$h(S) := \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- For the example graph in the previous page:  $|S| = 4$ ;  $|S^c| = 5$ ;  $|\partial S| = 8$ . Hence,  $h(S) = 8/4 = 2$ .
- The Cheeger ratio tells us the *quality of the cut* of  $V$  into  $S \cup S^c$ : if  $S$  and  $S^c$  are well-balanced, i.e.,  $|S| \approx |S^c|$ , and  $\exists$  few edges connecting  $S$  and  $S^c$ , then  $h(S)$  is small.
- The *isoperimetric number* (or a.k.a. the *Cheeger constant*)  $i(G)$  of  $G$  is defined as

$$i(G) := \inf_{S \subset V; S \neq \emptyset} \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- This definition is exactly the same as the one given in my previous lecture, but is in a more symmetric form.
- The version for  $L_{\text{rw}}$  replaces  $|S|$  and  $|S^c|$  by  $\text{vol}(S)$  and  $\text{vol}(S^c)$  where  $\text{vol}(S) := \sum_{v \in S} d(v)$ . That version has also been studied extensively.

## Isoperimetric Number . . .

- The *Cheeger ratio* for  $S \subset V$  is defined as

$$h(S) := \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- For the example graph in the previous page:  $|S| = 4$ ;  $|S^c| = 5$ ;  $|\partial S| = 8$ . Hence,  $h(S) = 8/4 = 2$ .
- The Cheeger ratio tells us the *quality of the cut* of  $V$  into  $S \cup S^c$ : if  $S$  and  $S^c$  are well-balanced, i.e.,  $|S| \approx |S^c|$ , and  $\exists$  few edges connecting  $S$  and  $S^c$ , then  $h(S)$  is small.
- The *isoperimetric number* (or a.k.a. the *Cheeger constant*)  $i(G)$  of  $G$  is defined as

$$i(G) := \inf_{S \subset V; S \neq \emptyset} \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- This definition is exactly the same as the one given in my previous lecture, but is in a more symmetric form.
- The version for  $L_{\text{rw}}$  replaces  $|S|$  and  $|S^c|$  by  $\text{vol}(S)$  and  $\text{vol}(S^c)$  where  $\text{vol}(S) := \sum_{v \in S} d(v)$ . That version has also been studied extensively.



## Isoperimetric Number . . .

- The *Cheeger ratio* for  $S \subset V$  is defined as

$$h(S) := \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- For the example graph in the previous page:  $|S| = 4$ ;  $|S^c| = 5$ ;  $|\partial S| = 8$ . Hence,  $h(S) = 8/4 = 2$ .
- The Cheeger ratio tells us the *quality of the cut* of  $V$  into  $S \cup S^c$ : if  $S$  and  $S^c$  are well-balanced, i.e.,  $|S| \approx |S^c|$ , and  $\exists$  few edges connecting  $S$  and  $S^c$ , then  $h(S)$  is small.
- The *isoperimetric number* (or a.k.a. the *Cheeger constant*)  $i(G)$  of  $G$  is defined as

$$i(G) := \inf_{S \subset V; S \neq \emptyset} \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- This definition is exactly the same as the one given in my previous lecture, but is in a more symmetric form.
- The version for  $L_{\text{rw}}$  replaces  $|S|$  and  $|S^c|$  by  $\text{vol}(S)$  and  $\text{vol}(S^c)$  where  $\text{vol}(S) := \sum_{v \in S} d(v)$ . That version has also been studied extensively.

## Isoperimetric Number . . .

- The *Cheeger ratio* for  $S \subset V$  is defined as

$$h(S) := \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- For the example graph in the previous page:  $|S| = 4$ ;  $|S^c| = 5$ ;  $|\partial S| = 8$ . Hence,  $h(S) = 8/4 = 2$ .
- The Cheeger ratio tells us the *quality of the cut* of  $V$  into  $S \cup S^c$ : if  $S$  and  $S^c$  are well-balanced, i.e.,  $|S| \approx |S^c|$ , and  $\exists$  few edges connecting  $S$  and  $S^c$ , then  $h(S)$  is small.
- The *isoperimetric number* (or a.k.a. the *Cheeger constant*)  $i(G)$  of  $G$  is defined as

$$i(G) := \inf_{S \subset V; S \neq \emptyset} \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- This definition is exactly the same as the one given in my previous lecture, but is in a more symmetric form.
- The version for  $L_{rw}$  replaces  $|S|$  and  $|S^c|$  by  $\text{vol}(S)$  and  $\text{vol}(S^c)$  where  $\text{vol}(S) := \sum_{v \in S} d(v)$ . That version has also been studied extensively.

## Isoperimetric Number ...

- The *Cheeger ratio* for  $S \subset V$  is defined as

$$h(S) := \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- For the example graph in the previous page:  $|S| = 4$ ;  $|S^c| = 5$ ;  $|\partial S| = 8$ . Hence,  $h(S) = 8/4 = 2$ .
- The Cheeger ratio tells us the *quality of the cut* of  $V$  into  $S \cup S^c$ : if  $S$  and  $S^c$  are well-balanced, i.e.,  $|S| \approx |S^c|$ , and  $\exists$  few edges connecting  $S$  and  $S^c$ , then  $h(S)$  is small.
- The *isoperimetric number* (or a.k.a. the *Cheeger constant*)  $i(G)$  of  $G$  is defined as

$$i(G) := \inf_{S \subset V; S \neq \emptyset} \frac{|\partial S|}{\min\{|S|, |S^c|\}}.$$

- This definition is exactly the same as the one given in my previous lecture, but is in a more symmetric form.
- The version for  $L_{\text{rw}}$  replaces  $|S|$  and  $|S^c|$  by  $\text{vol}(S)$  and  $\text{vol}(S^c)$  where  $\text{vol}(S) := \sum_{v \in S} d(v)$ . That version has also been studied extensively.

## Why is $i(G)$ so important or interesting?

- To determine it, we need to find a small *edge-cut* separating as large a subset  $S$  with  $|S| \leq n/2$  as possible from the remaining larger part  $S^c$ .  
 $\implies$  It serves as a *measure of connectivity* of  $G$ . May indicate how easy is it to “destroy” a given network  $G$  by cutting only a few edges.
- The problem of partitioning  $V(G)$  into two equally sized subsets (to within one element) in such a way that the number of the edges in the cut is minimal, is known as the *bisection width* problem. There are many practical applications, e.g., VLSI design, etc.
- $i(G)$ : large  $\implies G$  has a large *growth rate*. More precisely, let  $B_k(v)$  be the set of vertices of  $G$  at distance at most  $k$  from  $v$ , like a ball with center  $v$  and radius  $k$ . Then,  $|B_{k+1}(v)|/|B_k(v)| \geq i(G)/d_{\max}(G)$ .
- It is a discrete analogue of the *Cheeger constant* in Riemannian geometry, i.e., the minimal area of a hypersurface that divides a given compact Riemannian manifold into two disjoint pieces of equal volume.

## Why is $i(G)$ so important or interesting?

- To determine it, we need to find a small *edge-cut* separating as large a subset  $S$  with  $|S| \leq n/2$  as possible from the remaining larger part  $S^c$ .  
 $\implies$  It serves as a *measure of connectivity* of  $G$ . May indicate how easy is it to “destroy” a given network  $G$  by cutting only a few edges.
- The problem of partitioning  $V(G)$  into two equally sized subsets (to within one element) in such a way that the number of the edges in the cut is minimal, is known as the *bisection width* problem. There are many practical applications, e.g., VLSI design, etc.
- $i(G)$ : large  $\implies G$  has a large *growth rate*. More precisely, let  $B_k(v)$  be the set of vertices of  $G$  at distance at most  $k$  from  $v$ , like a ball with center  $v$  and radius  $k$ . Then,  $|B_{k+1}(v)|/|B_k(v)| \geq i(G)/d_{\max}(G)$ .
- It is a discrete analogue of the *Cheeger constant* in Riemannian geometry, i.e., the minimal area of a hypersurface that divides a given compact Riemannian manifold into two disjoint pieces of equal volume.

## Why is $i(G)$ so important or interesting?

- To determine it, we need to find a small *edge-cut* separating as large a subset  $S$  with  $|S| \leq n/2$  as possible from the remaining larger part  $S^c$ .  
 $\implies$  It serves as a *measure of connectivity* of  $G$ . May indicate how easy is it to “destroy” a given network  $G$  by cutting only a few edges.
- The problem of partitioning  $V(G)$  into two equally sized subsets (to within one element) in such a way that the number of the edges in the cut is minimal, is known as the *bisection width* problem. There are many practical applications, e.g., VLSI design, etc.
- $i(G)$ : large  $\implies G$  has a large *growth rate*. More precisely, let  $B_k(v)$  be the set of vertices of  $G$  at distance at most  $k$  from  $v$ , like a ball with center  $v$  and radius  $k$ . Then,  $|B_{k+1}(v)|/|B_k(v)| \geq i(G)/d_{\max}(G)$ .
- It is a discrete analogue of the *Cheeger constant* in Riemannian geometry, i.e., the minimal area of a hypersurface that divides a given compact Riemannian manifold into two disjoint pieces of equal volume.

## Why is $i(G)$ so important or interesting?

- To determine it, we need to find a small *edge-cut* separating as large a subset  $S$  with  $|S| \leq n/2$  as possible from the remaining larger part  $S^c$ .  
 $\implies$  It serves as a *measure of connectivity* of  $G$ . May indicate how easy is it to “destroy” a given network  $G$  by cutting only a few edges.
- The problem of partitioning  $V(G)$  into two equally sized subsets (to within one element) in such a way that the number of the edges in the cut is minimal, is known as the *bisection width* problem. There are many practical applications, e.g., VLSI design, etc.
- $i(G)$ : large  $\implies G$  has a large *growth rate*. More precisely, let  $B_k(v)$  be the set of vertices of  $G$  at distance at most  $k$  from  $v$ , like a ball with center  $v$  and radius  $k$ . Then,  $|B_{k+1}(v)|/|B_k(v)| \geq i(G)/d_{\max}(G)$ .
- It is a discrete analogue of the *Cheeger constant* in Riemannian geometry, i.e., the minimal area of a hypersurface that divides a given compact Riemannian manifold into two disjoint pieces of equal volume.

## Isoperimetric Numbers of Specific Graphs

Graph $G$	Isoperimetric Number $i(G)$
Complete graph $K_n$	$i(K_n) = \lceil n/2 \rceil$
Path $P_n$	$i(P_n) = 1/\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$
Cycle $C_n$	$i(C_n) = 2/\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$
Bipartite complete graph $K_{p,q}$	$i(K_{p,q}) = \lceil pq/2 \rceil / \lfloor (p+q)/2 \rfloor$
Cube $m$ -dimension $Cb_m$	$i(Cb_m) = 1$
Petersen Graph $P$	$i(P) = 1$



# The Isoperimetric Number and Algebraic Connectivity

- Both are viewed as measures of connectivity of a given graph.
- While  $i(G)$  is more explicitly related to the connectivity of a graph than  $a(G)$ , it is more difficult (i.e., combinatorial) to compute  $i(G)$  than  $a(G)$ .
- Hence, the bounds of  $i(G)$  in terms of  $a(G)$  and the other quantities have been extensively studied.
- Mohar (1987, 1989):  $a(G)/2 \leq i(G) \leq \sqrt{a(G)(2d_{\max}(G) - a(G))}$  for  $n \geq 4$ , where  $d_{\max}(G) := \max_j d_j$ .

# The Isoperimetric Number and Algebraic Connectivity

- Both are viewed as measures of connectivity of a given graph.
- While  $i(G)$  is more explicitly related to the connectivity of a graph than  $a(G)$ , it is more difficult (i.e., combinatorial) to compute  $i(G)$  than  $a(G)$ .
- Hence, the bounds of  $i(G)$  in terms of  $a(G)$  and the other quantities have been extensively studied.
- Mohar (1987, 1989):  $a(G)/2 \leq i(G) \leq \sqrt{a(G)(2d_{\max}(G) - a(G))}$  for  $n \geq 4$ , where  $d_{\max}(G) := \max_j d_j$ .

# The Isoperimetric Number and Algebraic Connectivity

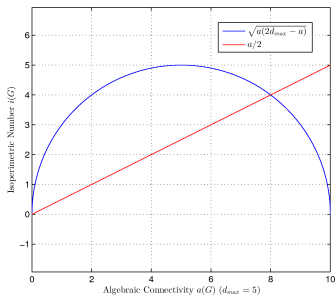
- Both are viewed as measures of connectivity of a given graph.
- While  $i(G)$  is more explicitly related to the connectivity of a graph than  $a(G)$ , it is more difficult (i.e., combinatorial) to compute  $i(G)$  than  $a(G)$ .
- Hence, the bounds of  $i(G)$  in terms of  $a(G)$  and the other quantities have been extensively studied.
- Mohar (1987, 1989):  $a(G)/2 \leq i(G) \leq \sqrt{a(G)(2d_{\max}(G) - a(G))}$  for  $n \geq 4$ , where  $d_{\max}(G) := \max_j d_j$ .

## The Isoperimetric Number and Algebraic Connectivity

- Both are viewed as measures of connectivity of a given graph.
- While  $i(G)$  is more explicitly related to the connectivity of a graph than  $a(G)$ , it is more difficult (i.e., combinatorial) to compute  $i(G)$  than  $a(G)$ .
- Hence, the bounds of  $i(G)$  in terms of  $a(G)$  and the other quantities have been extensively studied.
- Mohar (1987, 1989):  $a(G)/2 \leq i(G) \leq \sqrt{a(G)(2d_{\max}(G) - a(G))}$  for  $n \geq 4$ , where  $d_{\max}(G) := \max_j d_j$ .

# The Isoperimetric Number and Algebraic Connectivity

- Both are viewed as measures of connectivity of a given graph.
- While  $i(G)$  is more explicitly related to the connectivity of a graph than  $a(G)$ , it is more difficult (i.e., combinatorial) to compute  $i(G)$  than  $a(G)$ .
- Hence, the bounds of  $i(G)$  in terms of  $a(G)$  and the other quantities have been extensively studied.
- Mohar (1987, 1989):  $a(G)/2 \leq i(G) \leq \sqrt{a(G)(2d_{\max}(G) - a(G))}$  for  $n \geq 4$ , where  $d_{\max}(G) := \max_i d_i$ .



# Outline

- 1 Isoperimetric Number
- 2 Isospectrality; Spectral Characterization of Graphs
- 3 Applications to Morphological Feature Extraction from Dendritic Trees
  - Motivation
  - Eigenvalue-Based Features
  - Conclusions & Future Plans

# Isospectrality

- The spectrum (i.e., the set of eigenvalues)  $\Lambda(G)$  of  $L(G)$  cannot uniquely determine the graph  $G$ .
  - ~ Kac (1966): “Can one hear the shape of a drum?”  $\implies$  Gordon, Webb, & Wolpert (1992): “One cannot hear the shape of a drum.”
- An example of “isospectral” graphs (Tan, 1998; Fujii & Katsuda, 1999):

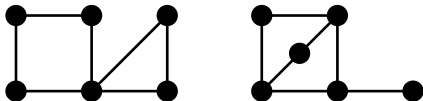
# Isospectrality

- The spectrum (i.e., the set of eigenvalues)  $\Lambda(G)$  of  $L(G)$  cannot uniquely determine the graph  $G$ .
  - ~ Kac (1966): “Can one hear the shape of a drum?”  $\implies$  Gordon, Webb, & Wolpert (1992): “One cannot hear the shape of a drum.”
- An example of “isospectral” graphs (Tan, 1998; Fujii & Katsuda, 1999):



# Isospectrality

- The spectrum (i.e., the set of eigenvalues)  $\Lambda(G)$  of  $L(G)$  cannot uniquely determine the graph  $G$ .  
 ~ Kac (1966): “Can one hear the shape of a drum?”  $\implies$  Gordon, Webb, & Wolpert (1992): “One cannot hear the shape of a drum.”
- An example of “isospectral” graphs (Tan, 1998; Fujii & Katsuda, 1999):



$$L(G_1) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 4 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \neq L(G_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

But,  $\Lambda(G_1) = \Lambda(G_2) = \{0, 0.7639, 2, 3, 3, 5.2361\}$ .

# Spectral Characterization of Certain Classes of Graphs

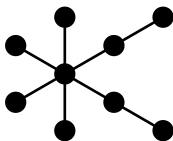
- In fact, *there are 58 pairs, 6 triples of isospectral graphs within all possible simple/undirected/unweighted graphs with  $n < 8$*  (Tan, 1998).
- However, certain classes of graphs can be completely determined by their Laplacian spectra: starlike trees (Omidi & Tajbakhsh, 2007), centipedes (Boulet, 2008), ...
- $\exists$  some attempts to reconstruct graphs from their Laplacian spectra via combinatorial optimization (e.g., Comellas & Diaz-Lopez, 2008)
- Nothing prevents us from using the Laplacian spectra for characterizing dendrite patterns!

# Spectral Characterization of Certain Classes of Graphs

- In fact, *there are 58 pairs, 6 triples of isospectral graphs within all possible simple/undirected/unweighted graphs with  $n < 8$*  (Tan, 1998).
- However, certain classes of graphs can be completely determined by their Laplacian spectra: starlike trees (Omidi & Tajbakhsh, 2007), centipedes (Boulet, 2008), ...
- $\exists$  some attempts to reconstruct graphs from their Laplacian spectra via combinatorial optimization (e.g., Comellas & Diaz-Lopez, 2008)
- Nothing prevents us from using the Laplacian spectra for characterizing dendrite patterns!

# Spectral Characterization of Certain Classes of Graphs

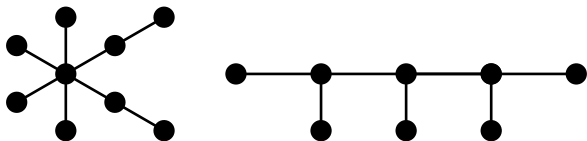
- In fact, *there are 58 pairs, 6 triples of isospectral graphs within all possible simple/undirected/unweighted graphs with  $n < 8$*  (Tan, 1998).
- However, certain classes of graphs can be completely determined by their Laplacian spectra: starlike trees (Omidi & Tajbakhsh, 2007), centipedes (Boulet, 2008), ...



- $\exists$  some attempts to reconstruct graphs from their Laplacian spectra via combinatorial optimization (e.g., Comellas & Diaz-Lopez, 2008)
- Nothing prevents us from using the Laplacian spectra for characterizing dendrite patterns!

# Spectral Characterization of Certain Classes of Graphs

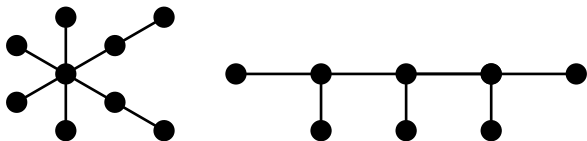
- In fact, *there are 58 pairs, 6 triples of isospectral graphs within all possible simple/undirected/unweighted graphs with  $n < 8$*  (Tan, 1998).
- However, certain classes of graphs can be completely determined by their Laplacian spectra: starlike trees (Omidi & Tajbakhsh, 2007), centipedes (Boulet, 2008), ...



- $\exists$  some attempts to reconstruct graphs from their Laplacian spectra via combinatorial optimization (e.g., Comellas & Diaz-Lopez, 2008)
- Nothing prevents us from using the Laplacian spectra for characterizing dendrite patterns!

# Spectral Characterization of Certain Classes of Graphs

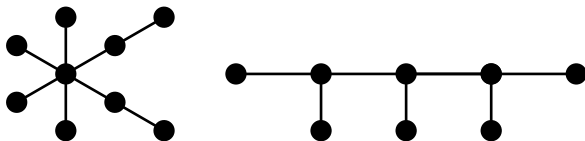
- In fact, *there are 58 pairs, 6 triples of isospectral graphs within all possible simple/undirected/unweighted graphs with  $n < 8$*  (Tan, 1998).
- However, certain classes of graphs can be completely determined by their Laplacian spectra: starlike trees (Omidi & Tajbakhsh, 2007), centipedes (Boulet, 2008), ...



- $\exists$  some attempts to reconstruct graphs from their Laplacian spectra via combinatorial optimization (e.g., Comellas & Diaz-Lopez, 2008)
- Nothing prevents us from using the Laplacian spectra for characterizing dendrite patterns!

# Spectral Characterization of Certain Classes of Graphs

- In fact, *there are 58 pairs, 6 triples of isospectral graphs within all possible simple/undirected/unweighted graphs with  $n < 8$*  (Tan, 1998).
- However, certain classes of graphs can be completely determined by their Laplacian spectra: starlike trees (Omidi & Tajbakhsh, 2007), centipedes (Boulet, 2008), ...



- $\exists$  some attempts to reconstruct graphs from their Laplacian spectra via combinatorial optimization (e.g., Comellas & Diaz-Lopez, 2008)
- Nothing prevents us from using the Laplacian spectra for characterizing dendrite patterns!

# Outline

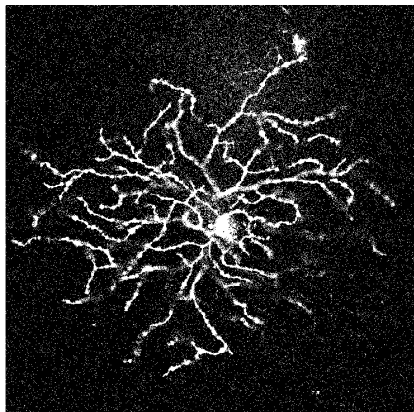
- 1 Isoperimetric Number
- 2 Isospectrality; Spectral Characterization of Graphs
- 3 Applications to Morphological Feature Extraction from Dendritic Trees
  - Motivation
  - Eigenvalue-Based Features
  - Conclusions & Future Plans



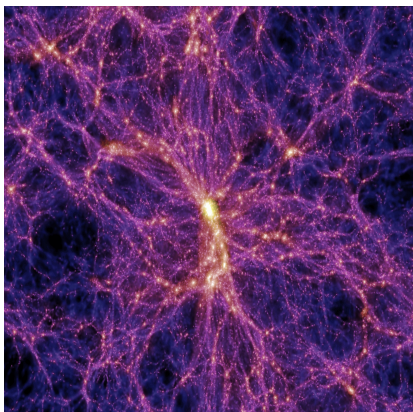
# Outline

- 1 Isoperimetric Number
- 2 Isospectrality; Spectral Characterization of Graphs
- 3 Applications to Morphological Feature Extraction from Dendritic Trees
  - Motivation
  - Eigenvalue-Based Features
  - Conclusions & Future Plans

# Morphology of Network-like Structures

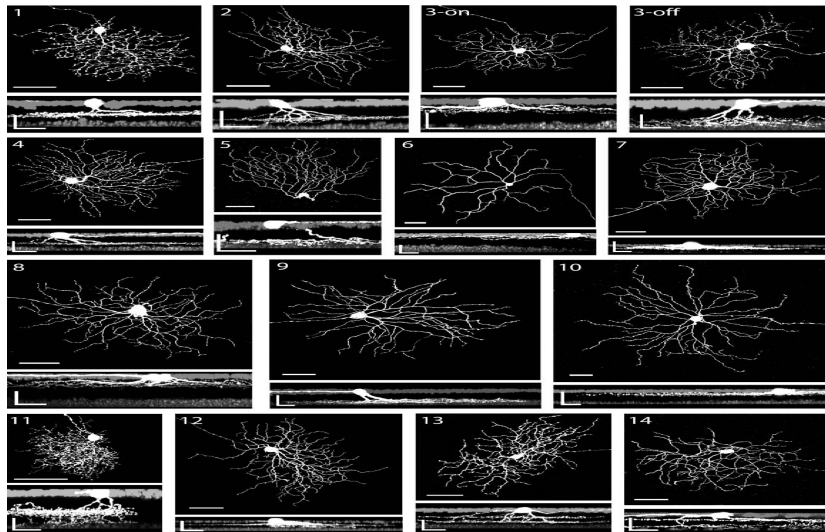


(a) Neuron

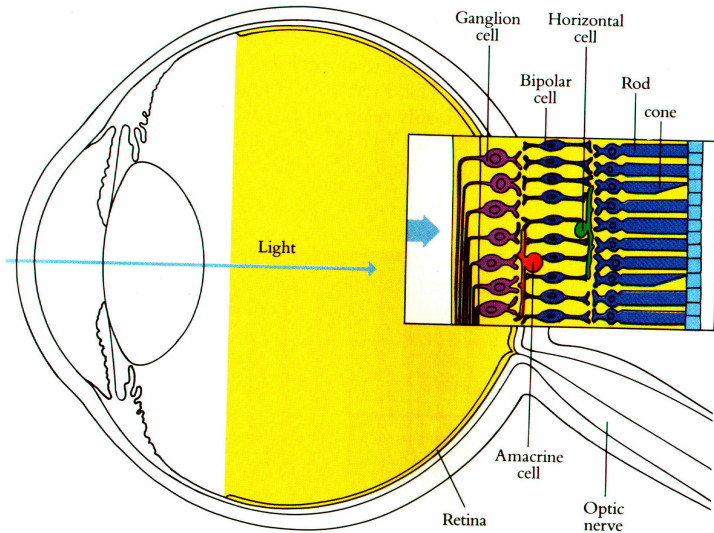


(b) Universe

# Morphology of Retinal Ganglion Cells

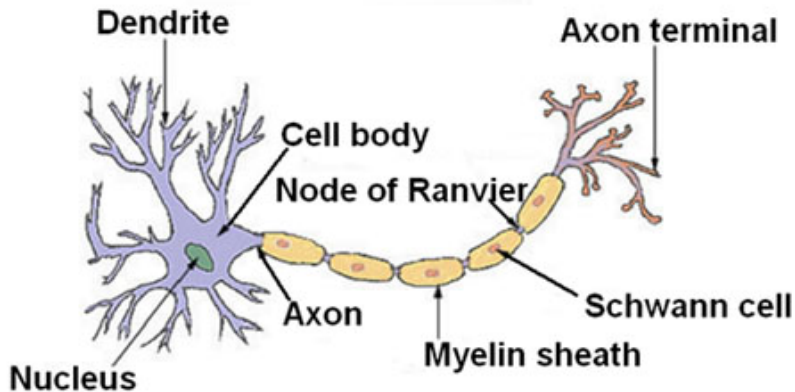


# Retinal Ganglion Cells (D. Hubel: *Eye, Brain, & Vision*, '95)



# A Typical Neuron (from Wikipedia)

## Structure of a Typical Neuron



# Clustering Mouse's Retinal Ganglion Cells

- Neuroscientists' Objective: To understand how *structural / morphological* properties of dendritic trees of mouse retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) relate to the *cell types* and their *functionality*; how such properties *change / evolve* from newborn to adult
- Why mouse?  $\implies$  Great possibilities for genetic manipulation
- Data: 3D images of dendrites of RGCs via a confocal microscope
- State of the art: A manually intensive procedure using specialized software<sup>1</sup>:
  - ▶ Trace and segment dendrite patterns from each 3D cube;
  - ▶ Extract geometric/morphological parameters (totally 14 parameters);
  - ▶ Apply a conventional bottom-up "hierarchical clustering" algorithm
- The extracted morphological parameters include: somal size; dendritic field size; total dendrite length; branch order; mean internal branch length; branch angle; mean terminal branch length, ...
- It takes *half a day per cell with a lot of human interactions!*

---

<sup>1</sup>NeuroLucida<sup>®</sup>, MBF Bioscience

# Clustering Mouse's Retinal Ganglion Cells

- Neuroscientists' Objective: To understand how *structural* / *morphological* properties of dendritic trees of mouse retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) relate to the *cell types* and their *functionality*; how such properties *change* / *evolve* from newborn to adult
- Why mouse?  $\implies$  Great possibilities for genetic manipulation
- Data: 3D images of dendrites of RGCs via a confocal microscope
- State of the art: A manually intensive procedure using specialized software<sup>1</sup>:
  - ▶ Trace and segment dendrite patterns from each 3D cube;
  - ▶ Extract geometric/morphological parameters (totally 14 parameters);
  - ▶ Apply a conventional bottom-up "hierarchical clustering" algorithm
- The extracted morphological parameters include: somal size; dendritic field size; total dendrite length; branch order; mean internal branch length; branch angle; mean terminal branch length, ...
- It takes *half a day per cell with a lot of human interactions!*

---

<sup>1</sup>NeuroLucida<sup>®</sup>, MBF Bioscience

# Clustering Mouse's Retinal Ganglion Cells

- Neuroscientists' Objective: To understand how *structural* / *morphological* properties of dendritic trees of mouse retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) relate to the *cell types* and their *functionality*; how such properties *change* / *evolve* from newborn to adult
- Why mouse?  $\implies$  Great possibilities for genetic manipulation
- Data: 3D images of dendrites of RGCs via a confocal microscope
- State of the art: A manually intensive procedure using specialized software<sup>1</sup>:
  - ✦ Trace and segment dendrite patterns from each 3D cube;
  - ✦ Extract geometric/morphological parameters (totally 14 parameters);
  - ✦ Apply a conventional bottom-up "hierarchical clustering" algorithm
- The extracted morphological parameters include: somal size; dendritic field size; total dendrite length; branch order; mean internal branch length; branch angle; mean terminal branch length, ...
- It takes *half a day per cell with a lot of human interactions!*

---

<sup>1</sup>NeuroLucida<sup>®</sup>, MBF Bioscience



# Clustering Mouse's Retinal Ganglion Cells

- Neuroscientists' Objective: To understand how *structural* / *morphological* properties of dendritic trees of mouse retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) relate to the *cell types* and their *functionality*; how such properties *change* / *evolve* from newborn to adult
- Why mouse?  $\implies$  Great possibilities for genetic manipulation
- Data: 3D images of dendrites of RGCs via a confocal microscope
- State of the art: A manually intensive procedure using specialized software<sup>1</sup>:
  - Trace and segment dendrite patterns from each 3D cube;
  - Extract geometric/morphological parameters (totally 14 parameters);
  - Apply a conventional bottom-up "hierarchical clustering" algorithm
- The extracted morphological parameters include: somal size; dendritic field size; total dendrite length; branch order; mean internal branch length; branch angle; mean terminal branch length, ...
- It takes *half a day per cell with a lot of human interactions!*

---

<sup>1</sup>Neurolucida<sup>®</sup>, MBF Bioscience

# Clustering Mouse's Retinal Ganglion Cells

- Neuroscientists' Objective: To understand how *structural* / *morphological* properties of dendritic trees of mouse retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) relate to the *cell types* and their *functionality*; how such properties *change* / *evolve* from newborn to adult
- Why mouse?  $\implies$  Great possibilities for genetic manipulation
- Data: 3D images of dendrites of RGCs via a confocal microscope
- State of the art: A manually intensive procedure using specialized software<sup>1</sup>:
  - Trace and segment dendrite patterns from each 3D cube;
  - Extract geometric/morphological parameters (totally 14 parameters);
  - Apply a conventional bottom-up "hierarchical clustering" algorithm
- The extracted morphological parameters include: somal size; dendritic field size; total dendrite length; branch order; mean internal branch length; branch angle; mean terminal branch length, ...
- It takes *half a day per cell with a lot of human interactions!*

---

<sup>1</sup>Neurolucida<sup>®</sup>, MBF Bioscience

# Clustering Mouse's Retinal Ganglion Cells

- Neuroscientists' Objective: To understand how *structural* / *morphological* properties of dendritic trees of mouse retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) relate to the *cell types* and their *functionality*; how such properties *change* / *evolve* from newborn to adult
- Why mouse?  $\implies$  Great possibilities for genetic manipulation
- Data: 3D images of dendrites of RGCs via a confocal microscope
- State of the art: A manually intensive procedure using specialized software<sup>1</sup>:
  - Trace and segment dendrite patterns from each 3D cube;
  - Extract geometric/morphological parameters (totally 14 parameters);
    - Apply a conventional bottom-up "hierarchical clustering" algorithm
  - The extracted morphological parameters include: somal size; dendritic field size; total dendrite length; branch order; mean internal branch length; branch angle; mean terminal branch length, ...
  - It takes *half a day per cell with a lot of human interactions!*

---

<sup>1</sup>Neurolucida<sup>®</sup>, MBF Bioscience

# Clustering Mouse's Retinal Ganglion Cells

- Neuroscientists' Objective: To understand how *structural* / *morphological* properties of dendritic trees of mouse retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) relate to the *cell types* and their *functionality*; how such properties *change* / *evolve* from newborn to adult
- Why mouse?  $\implies$  Great possibilities for genetic manipulation
- Data: 3D images of dendrites of RGCs via a confocal microscope
- State of the art: A manually intensive procedure using specialized software<sup>1</sup>:
  - Trace and segment dendrite patterns from each 3D cube;
  - Extract geometric/morphological parameters (totally 14 parameters);
  - Apply a conventional bottom-up “hierarchical clustering” algorithm
- The extracted morphological parameters include: somal size; dendritic field size; total dendrite length; branch order; mean internal branch length; branch angle; mean terminal branch length, ...
- It takes *half a day per cell with a lot of human interactions!*

---

<sup>1</sup>Neurolucida<sup>®</sup>, MBF Bioscience

## Clustering Mouse's Retinal Ganglion Cells

- Neuroscientists' Objective: To understand how *structural* / *morphological* properties of dendritic trees of mouse retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) relate to the *cell types* and their *functionality*; how such properties *change* / *evolve* from newborn to adult
- Why mouse?  $\implies$  Great possibilities for genetic manipulation
- Data: 3D images of dendrites of RGCs via a confocal microscope
- State of the art: A manually intensive procedure using specialized software<sup>1</sup>:
  - Trace and segment dendrite patterns from each 3D cube;
  - Extract geometric/morphological parameters (totally 14 parameters);
  - Apply a conventional bottom-up “hierarchical clustering” algorithm
- The extracted morphological parameters include: somal size; dendritic field size; total dendrite length; branch order; mean internal branch length; branch angle; mean terminal branch length, . . .
- It takes *half a day per cell with a lot of human interactions!*

---

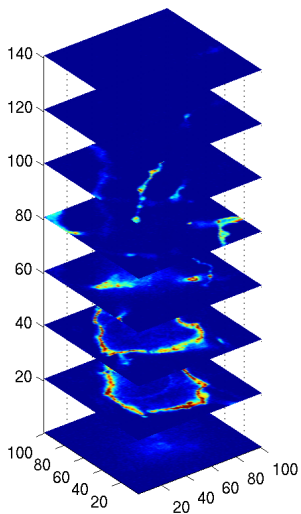
<sup>1</sup>NeuroLucida<sup>®</sup>, MBF Bioscience

# Clustering Mouse's Retinal Ganglion Cells

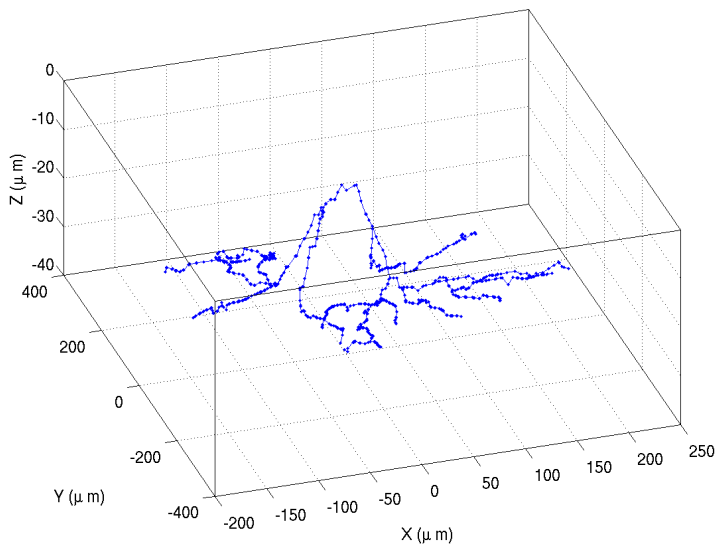
- Neuroscientists' Objective: To understand how *structural* / *morphological* properties of dendritic trees of mouse retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) relate to the *cell types* and their *functionality*; how such properties *change* / *evolve* from newborn to adult
- Why mouse?  $\implies$  Great possibilities for genetic manipulation
- Data: 3D images of dendrites of RGCs via a confocal microscope
- State of the art: A manually intensive procedure using specialized software<sup>1</sup>:
  - Trace and segment dendrite patterns from each 3D cube;
  - Extract geometric/morphological parameters (totally 14 parameters);
  - Apply a conventional bottom-up “hierarchical clustering” algorithm
- The extracted morphological parameters include: somal size; dendritic field size; total dendrite length; branch order; mean internal branch length; branch angle; mean terminal branch length, . . .
- It takes *half a day per cell with a lot of human interactions!*

<sup>1</sup>Neurolucida<sup>®</sup>, MBF Bioscience

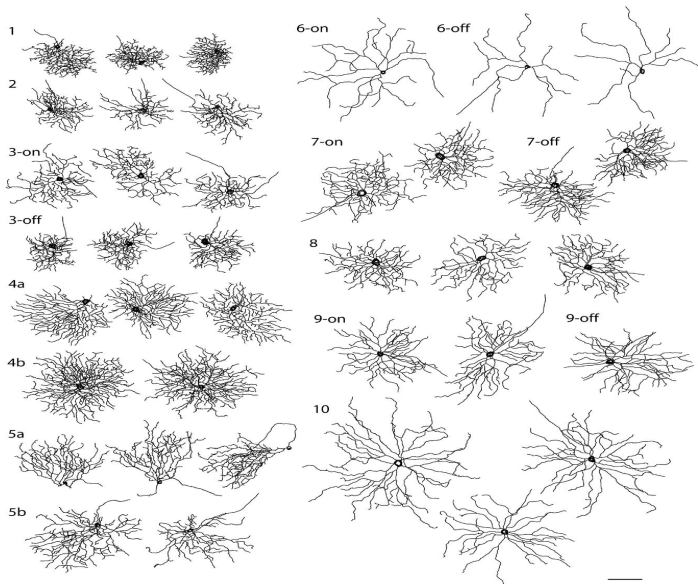
## 3D Data



# Mouse's RGC as a Graph





Clustering using Features Derived by Neurolucida<sup>®</sup>

# Our Goal

- We want to develop algorithms for *automatic* morphological feature extraction and clustering from such dendritic trees.
- To do so, we need to convert each dendritic tree to a feature vector in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  with relatively small  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . This is called a *graph embedding* into a vector space.
- In this lecture, we mainly consider the features using *eigenvalues of graph Laplacians* of such trees.

# Our Goal

- We want to develop algorithms for *automatic* morphological feature extraction and clustering from such dendritic trees.
- To do so, we need to convert each dendritic tree to a feature vector in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  with relatively small  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . This is called a *graph embedding* into a vector space.
- In this lecture, we mainly consider the features using *eigenvalues of graph Laplacians* of such trees.

# Our Goal

- We want to develop algorithms for *automatic* morphological feature extraction and clustering from such dendritic trees.
- To do so, we need to convert each dendritic tree to a feature vector in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  with relatively small  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . This is called a *graph embedding* into a vector space.
- In this lecture, we mainly consider the features using *eigenvalues of graph Laplacians* of such trees.

## Our Dataset

consists of 130 RGCs each of which in turn consists of

- A sequence of 3D sample points along dendrite arbors obtained by Neurolucida<sup>®</sup> (requires intensive human interaction)
- Connectivity and branching information by the same software
- Each soma (cell body) is represented as a sequence of points traced along its boundary (circular/ring shape)  $\implies$  By replacing such a soma ring by a single vertex representing a center of the soma, each dendritic tree of an RGC is literally represented by a *tree!*
- At this point, we only consider *unweighted* trees.
- $n = |V(G)|$  ranges between 565 and 24474 depending on the RGCs.
- The range of maximum degrees:

$$\max_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 8, \quad \min_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 3.$$

## Our Dataset

consists of 130 RGCs each of which in turn consists of

- A sequence of 3D sample points along dendrite arbors obtained by Neurolucida<sup>®</sup> (requires intensive human interaction)
- Connectivity and branching information by the same software
- Each soma (cell body) is represented as a sequence of points traced along its boundary (circular/ring shape)  $\implies$  By replacing such a soma ring by a single vertex representing a center of the soma, each dendritic tree of an RGC is literally represented by a *tree!*
- At this point, we only consider *unweighted* trees.
- $n = |V(G)|$  ranges between 565 and 24474 depending on the RGCs.
- The range of maximum degrees:

$$\max_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 8, \quad \min_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 3.$$

## Our Dataset

consists of 130 RGCs each of which in turn consists of

- A sequence of 3D sample points along dendrite arbors obtained by Neurolucida<sup>®</sup> (requires intensive human interaction)
- Connectivity and branching information by the same software
- Each soma (cell body) is represented as a sequence of points traced along its boundary (circular/ring shape)  $\implies$  By replacing such a soma ring by a single vertex representing a center of the soma, each dendritic tree of an RGC is literally represented by a *tree*!
- At this point, we only consider *unweighted* trees.
- $n = |V(G)|$  ranges between 565 and 24474 depending on the RGCs.
- The range of maximum degrees:

$$\max_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 8, \quad \min_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 3.$$

## Our Dataset

consists of 130 RGCs each of which in turn consists of

- A sequence of 3D sample points along dendrite arbors obtained by Neurolucida<sup>®</sup> (requires intensive human interaction)
- Connectivity and branching information by the same software
- Each soma (cell body) is represented as a sequence of points traced along its boundary (circular/ring shape)  $\implies$  By replacing such a soma ring by a single vertex representing a center of the soma, each dendritic tree of an RGC is literally represented by a *tree*!
- At this point, we only consider *unweighted* trees.
- $n = |V(G)|$  ranges between 565 and 24474 depending on the RGCs.
- The range of maximum degrees:

$$\max_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 8, \quad \min_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 3.$$



## Our Dataset

consists of 130 RGCs each of which in turn consists of

- A sequence of 3D sample points along dendrite arbors obtained by Neurolucida<sup>®</sup> (requires intensive human interaction)
- Connectivity and branching information by the same software
- Each soma (cell body) is represented as a sequence of points traced along its boundary (circular/ring shape)  $\implies$  By replacing such a soma ring by a single vertex representing a center of the soma, each dendritic tree of an RGC is literally represented by a *tree*!
- At this point, we only consider *unweighted* trees.
- $n = |V(G)|$  ranges between 565 and 24474 depending on the RGCs.
- The range of maximum degrees:

$$\max_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 8, \quad \min_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 3.$$

## Our Dataset

consists of 130 RGCs each of which in turn consists of

- A sequence of 3D sample points along dendrite arbors obtained by Neurolucida<sup>®</sup> (requires intensive human interaction)
- Connectivity and branching information by the same software
- Each soma (cell body) is represented as a sequence of points traced along its boundary (circular/ring shape)  $\implies$  By replacing such a soma ring by a single vertex representing a center of the soma, each dendritic tree of an RGC is literally represented by a *tree*!
- At this point, we only consider *unweighted* trees.
- $n = |V(G)|$  ranges between 565 and 24474 depending on the RGCs.
- The range of maximum degrees:

$$\max_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 8, \quad \min_{130 \text{ cells}} \max_k d(v_k) = 3.$$

# Outline

- 1 Isoperimetric Number
- 2 Isospectrality; Spectral Characterization of Graphs
- 3 Applications to Morphological Feature Extraction from Dendritic Trees
  - Motivation
  - Eigenvalue-Based Features
  - Conclusions & Future Plans

## Features Used in Our Experiments

**Feature 1:**  $(p(G) - m_G(1))/|V(G)|$  as a lower bound of the number of pendant neighbors  $q(G)$  normalized by  $n = |V(G)|$  ;

Feature 2: The normalized Wiener index  $W(G)/|V(G)|$  ;

Feature 3:  $m_G(4, \infty)/|V(G)|$ , i.e., the number of eigenvalues of  $L(G)$  larger than 4 (normalized) ;

Feature 4:  $\sqrt{a(G) (2 \max_{v \in V(G)} d_v - a(G))}$ , i.e., the upper bound of the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$ .

- We normalized Features 1, 2, 3, by  $n = |V(G)|$  because we wanted to make features less dependent on the number of samples or how the dendrite arbors are sampled. Of course, the number of vertices itself could be a feature although it may not be a decisive one.
- Feature 4 was not explicitly normalized because the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$  itself is a normalized quantity in terms of number of vertices.

## Features Used in Our Experiments

**Feature 1:**  $(p(G) - m_G(1))/|V(G)|$  as a lower bound of the number of pendant neighbors  $q(G)$  normalized by  $n = |V(G)|$  ;

**Feature 2:** The normalized Wiener index  $W(G)/|V(G)|$  ;

**Feature 3:**  $m_G(4, \infty)/|V(G)|$ , i.e., the number of eigenvalues of  $L(G)$  larger than 4 (normalized) ;

**Feature 4:**  $\sqrt{a(G)(2 \max_{v \in V(G)} d_v - a(G))}$ , i.e., the upper bound of the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$ .

- We normalized Features 1, 2, 3, by  $n = |V(G)|$  because we wanted to make features less dependent on the number of samples or how the dendrite arbors are sampled. Of course, the number of vertices itself could be a feature although it may not be a decisive one.
- Feature 4 was not explicitly normalized because the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$  itself is a normalized quantity in terms of number of vertices.

## Features Used in Our Experiments

**Feature 1:**  $(p(G) - m_G(1))/|V(G)|$  as a lower bound of the number of pendant neighbors  $q(G)$  normalized by  $n = |V(G)|$  ;

**Feature 2:** The normalized Wiener index  $W(G)/|V(G)|$  ;

**Feature 3:**  $m_G(4, \infty)/|V(G)|$ , i.e., the number of eigenvalues of  $L(G)$  larger than 4 (normalized) ;

**Feature 4:**  $\sqrt{a(G)(2 \max_{v \in V(G)} d_v - a(G))}$ , i.e., the upper bound of the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$ .

- We normalized Features 1, 2, 3, by  $n = |V(G)|$  because we wanted to make features less dependent on the number of samples or how the dendrite arbors are sampled. Of course, the number of vertices itself could be a feature although it may not be a decisive one.
- Feature 4 was not explicitly normalized because the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$  itself is a normalized quantity in terms of number of vertices.

## Features Used in Our Experiments

- Feature 1:**  $(p(G) - m_G(1))/|V(G)|$  as a lower bound of the number of pendant neighbors  $q(G)$  normalized by  $n = |V(G)|$  ;
- Feature 2:** The normalized Wiener index  $W(G)/|V(G)|$  ;
- Feature 3:**  $m_G(4, \infty)/|V(G)|$ , i.e., the number of eigenvalues of  $L(G)$  larger than 4 (normalized) ;
- Feature 4:**  $\sqrt{a(G) (2 \max_{v \in V(G)} d_v - a(G))}$ , i.e., the upper bound of the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$ .
- We normalized Features 1, 2, 3, by  $n = |V(G)|$  because we wanted to make features less dependent on the number of samples or how the dendrite arbors are sampled. Of course, the number of vertices itself could be a feature although it may not be a decisive one.
  - Feature 4 was not explicitly normalized because the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$  itself is a normalized quantity in terms of number of vertices.

## Features Used in Our Experiments

**Feature 1:**  $(p(G) - m_G(1))/|V(G)|$  as a lower bound of the number of pendant neighbors  $q(G)$  normalized by  $n = |V(G)|$  ;

**Feature 2:** The normalized Wiener index  $W(G)/|V(G)|$  ;

**Feature 3:**  $m_G(4, \infty)/|V(G)|$ , i.e., the number of eigenvalues of  $L(G)$  larger than 4 (normalized) ;

**Feature 4:**  $\sqrt{a(G) (2 \max_{v \in V(G)} d_v - a(G))}$ , i.e., the upper bound of the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$ .

- We normalized Features 1, 2, 3, by  $n = |V(G)|$  because we wanted to make features less dependent on the number of samples or how the dendrite arbors are sampled. Of course, the number of vertices itself could be a feature although it may not be a decisive one.
- Feature 4 was not explicitly normalized because the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$  itself is a normalized quantity in terms of number of vertices.



## Features Used in Our Experiments

**Feature 1:**  $(p(G) - m_G(1))/|V(G)|$  as a lower bound of the number of pendant neighbors  $q(G)$  normalized by  $n = |V(G)|$  ;

**Feature 2:** The normalized Wiener index  $W(G)/|V(G)|$  ;

**Feature 3:**  $m_G(4, \infty)/|V(G)|$ , i.e., the number of eigenvalues of  $L(G)$  larger than 4 (normalized) ;

**Feature 4:**  $\sqrt{a(G) (2 \max_{v \in V(G)} d_v - a(G))}$ , i.e., the upper bound of the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$ .

- We normalized Features 1, 2, 3, by  $n = |V(G)|$  because we wanted to make features less dependent on the number of samples or how the dendrite arbors are sampled. Of course, the number of vertices itself could be a feature although it may not be a decisive one.
- Feature 4 was not explicitly normalized because the isoperimetric number  $i(G)$  itself is a normalized quantity in terms of number of vertices.

## Features Used in Our Experiments . . .

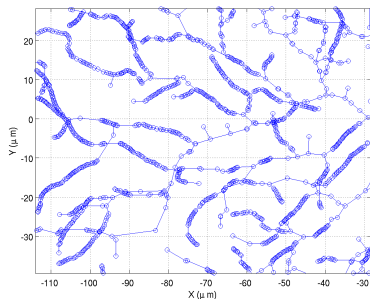
- *Feature 1* was used because the number of pendant neighbors seems to be strongly related to the so-called *spines*, short protrusions from the dendrite arbors.
- Hence, we expect that the larger this lower bound  $p(G) - m_G(1)$  is, the more likely for the RGC to have spines.

## Features Used in Our Experiments . . .

- *Feature 1* was used because the number of pendant neighbors seems to be strongly related to the so-called *spines*, short protrusions from the dendrite arbors.
- Hence, we expect that the larger this lower bound  $p(G) - m_G(1)$  is, the more likely for the RGC to have spines.

# Features Used in Our Experiments . . .

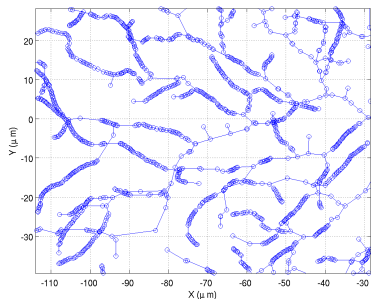
- *Feature 1* was used because the number of pendant neighbors seems to be strongly related to the so-called *spines*, short protrusions from the dendrite arbors.
- Hence, we expect that the larger this lower bound  $p(G) - m_G(1)$  is, the more likely for the RGC to have spines.



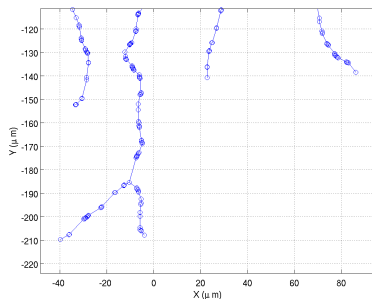
(a) RGC #60;  $F_1$  large

# Features Used in Our Experiments . . .

- *Feature 1* was used because the number of pendant neighbors seems to be strongly related to the so-called *spines*, short protrusions from the dendrite arbors.
- Hence, we expect that the larger this lower bound  $p(G) - m_G(1)$  is, the more likely for the RGC to have spines.



(a) RGC #60;  $F_1$  large



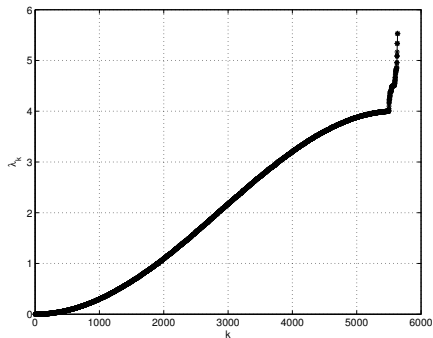
(b) RGC #100;  $F_1$  small

## Features Used in Our Experiments . . .

- *Feature 3*, the normalized version of  $m_G(4, \infty)$ , was used because of the following observation:
- The eigenvalue distribution of each RGC consists of a smooth bell-shaped curve that ranges over  $[0, 4]$  and the sudden burst above the value 4.

## Features Used in Our Experiments ...

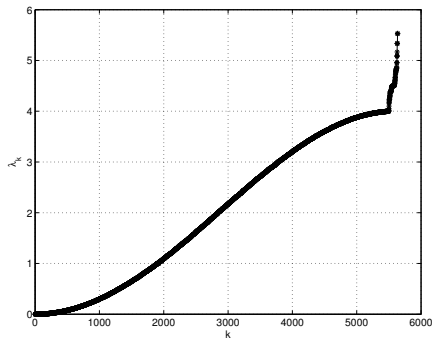
- *Feature 3*, the normalized version of  $m_G(4, \infty)$ , was used because of the following observation:
- The eigenvalue distribution of each RGC consists of a smooth bell-shaped curve that ranges over  $[0, 4]$  and the sudden burst above the value 4.



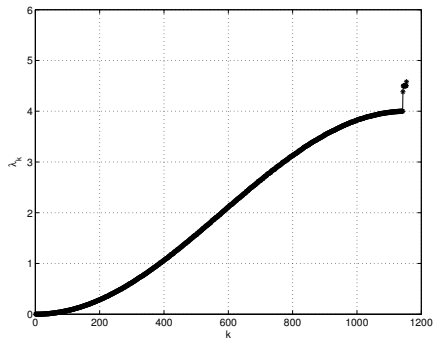
(a) RGC #60

## Features Used in Our Experiments ...

- *Feature 3*, the normalized version of  $m_G(4, \infty)$ , was used because of the following observation:
- The eigenvalue distribution of each RGC consists of a smooth bell-shaped curve that ranges over  $[0, 4]$  and the sudden burst above the value 4.



(a) RGC #60



(b) RGC #100



## Features Used in Our Experiments . . .

We have observed that this value **4** is critical since:

- the eigenfunctions corresponding to the eigenvalues below 4 are *semi-global* oscillations (like Fourier cosines/sines) over the entire dendrites or one of the dendrite arbors;
- those corresponding to the eigenvalues above 4 are much more *localized* (like wavelets) around branches.

## Features Used in Our Experiments . . .

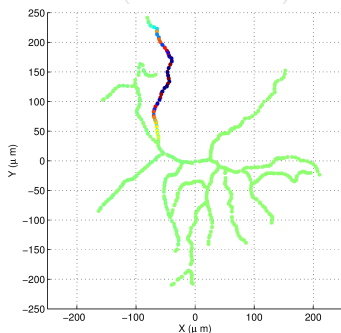
We have observed that this value  $4$  is critical since:

- the eigenfunctions corresponding to the eigenvalues below  $4$  are *semi-global* oscillations (like Fourier cosines/sines) over the entire dendrites or one of the dendrite arbors;
- those corresponding to the eigenvalues above  $4$  are much more *localized* (like wavelets) around branches.

# Features Used in Our Experiments ...

We have observed that this value **4** is critical since:

- the eigenfunctions corresponding to the eigenvalues below 4 are *semi-global* oscillations (like Fourier cosines/sines) over the entire dendrites or one of the dendrite arbors;
- those corresponding to the eigenvalues above 4 are much more *localized* (like wavelets) around branches.

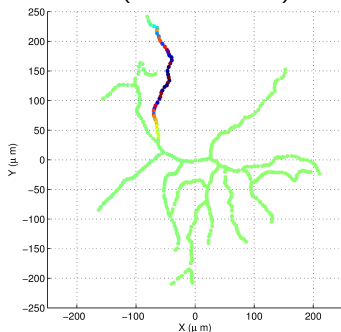


(a) RGC #100;  $\lambda_{1141} = 3.9994$

## Features Used in Our Experiments . . .

We have observed that this value **4** is critical since:

- the eigenfunctions corresponding to the eigenvalues below 4 are *semi-global* oscillations (like Fourier cosines/sines) over the entire dendrites or one of the dendrite arbors;
- those corresponding to the eigenvalues above 4 are much more *localized* (like wavelets) around branches.

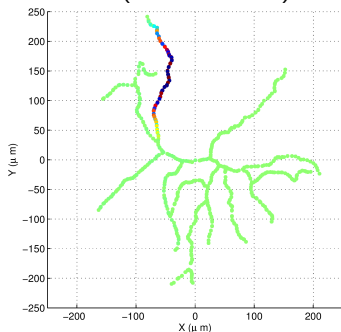


(a) RGC #100;  $\lambda_{1141} = 3.9994$

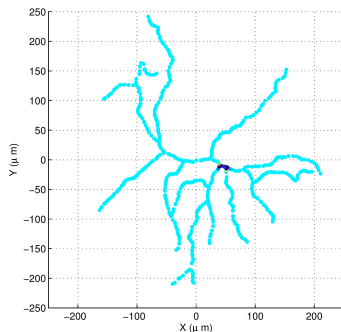
## Features Used in Our Experiments ...

We have observed that this value **4** is critical since:

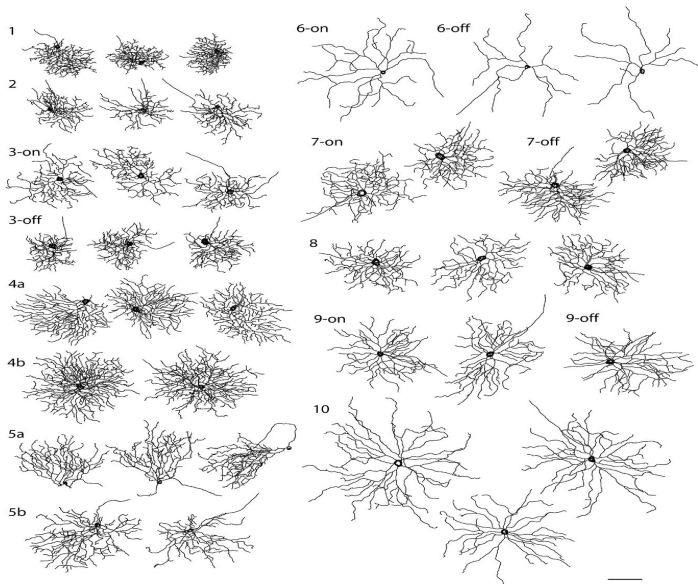
- the eigenfunctions corresponding to the eigenvalues below 4 are *semi-global* oscillations (like Fourier cosines/sines) over the entire dendrites or one of the dendrite arbors;
- those corresponding to the eigenvalues above 4 are much more *localized* (like wavelets) around branches.



(a) RGC #100;  $\lambda_{1141} = 3.9994$



(b) RGC #100;  $\lambda_{1142} = 4.3829$

Recap: Clustering using Features Derived by Neurolucida<sup>®</sup>

## Results: Scatter Plot; Feature 1 vs Feature 2

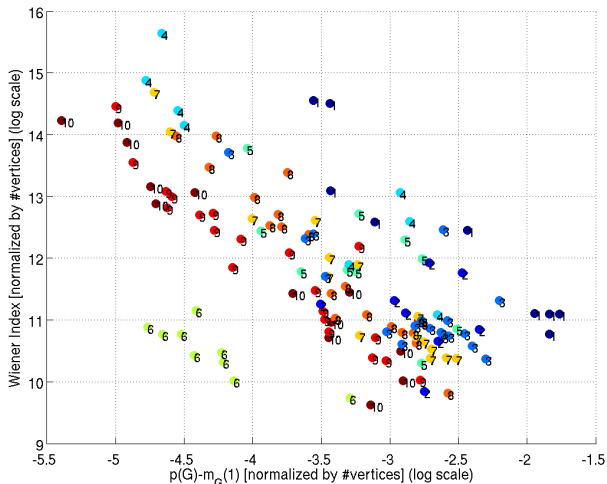


Figure: A scatter plot of the normalized lower bounds of the number of the pendant neighbors vs the normalized Wiener indices.

## Results: Scatter Plot; Feature 3 vs Feature 4

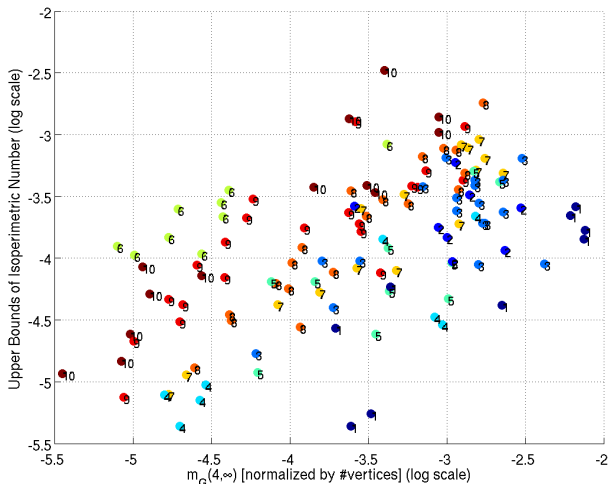


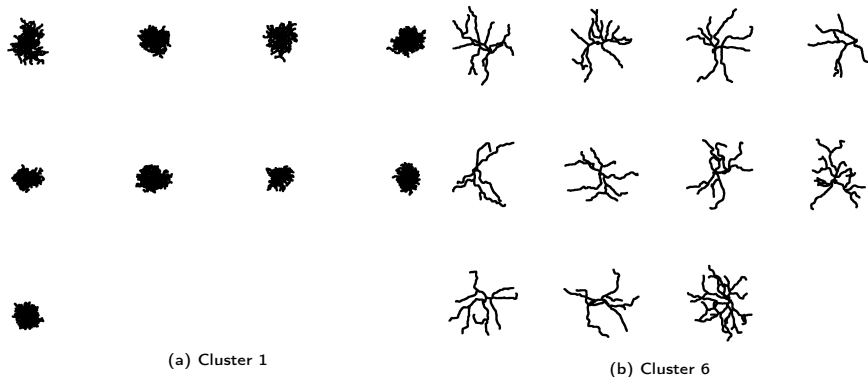
Figure: A scatter plot of the normalized number of the eigenvalues larger than 4 vs the upper bounds of the isoperimetric numbers.



## Interpretation of the Results

- Cluster 6 RGCs separate themselves quite well from the other RGC clusters.
- In fact, the sparse and distributed dendrite patterns such as those in Clusters 6 and 10 are located below the major axis of the point clouds in the  $F_1 - F_2$  scatter plot and above the major axis of the point clouds in the  $F_3 - F_4$  scatter plot.  $\implies$  the dendrite patterns belonging to Cluster 6 and 10 have smaller number of spines and smaller Wiener indices compared to the other denser dendrite patterns such as Clusters 1 to 5.
- Considerable feature variability in Clusters 7 and 8.

## Cluster 1 vs Cluster 6 . . .



# Outline

- 1 Isoperimetric Number
- 2 Isospectrality; Spectral Characterization of Graphs
- 3 Applications to Morphological Feature Extraction from Dendritic Trees
  - Motivation
  - Eigenvalue-Based Features
  - Conclusions & Future Plans

## Conclusions & Future Plans

- Network-like structures are abundant and need to be quantitatively analyzed.
- How to embed such graphs/networks into a vector space becomes important.
- Demonstrated the usefulness of the eigenvalues of graph Laplacians for dendrite pattern analysis although the results are still preliminary.
- Need to investigate more eigenvalue-based features.
- Need to investigate resampling of dendrite arbor samples.
- How about the weighted graph Laplacians?
- Analyze the features derived by Neurolucida<sup>®</sup>: are they derivable from the Laplacian eigenvalues?
- Automating segmentation of dendritic trees from 3D images will be highly useful although it is quite tough.