



Dept. of Computer Science, University of Copenhagen

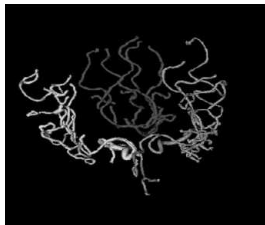
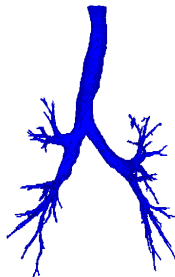
# Statistical analysis of geometric trees

Aasa Feragen  
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Summer School on  
Graphs in Computer Graphics, Image and Signal Analysis  
Rutsker, Bornholm, Denmark, August 15, 2011

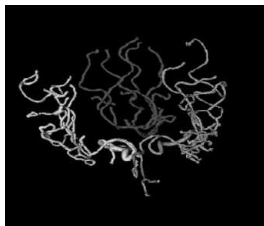
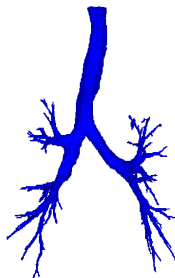
## Geometric trees?

- ▶ A tree is a graph with no cycle



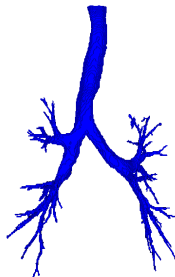
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- ▶ A tree is a graph with no cycle
- ▶ In this talk, all trees have a root



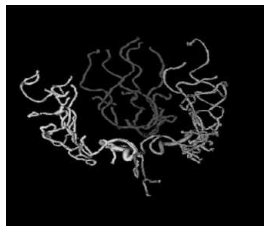
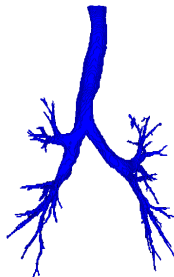
## Geometric trees?

- ▶ A tree is a graph with no cycle
- ▶ In this talk, all trees have a root
- ▶ Algorithmic advantages over graphs



# Geometric trees?

- ▶ A tree is a graph with no cycle
- ▶ In this talk, all trees have a root
- ▶ Algorithmic advantages over graphs
- ▶ Still difficult enough!



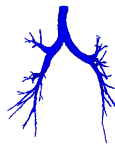
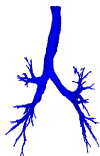
# Outline

- ▶ Motivation through examples
- ▶ Modeling geometric trees
- ▶ Classical example: Tree edit distance
- ▶ Approach 1: The object-oriented data analysis of Marron et al
- ▶ Approach 2: Phylogenetic trees and their like
- ▶ Approach 3: Statistical tree-shape analysis
- ▶ Conclusions and open problems

# Motivation through examples

## Example 1: Human airway trees

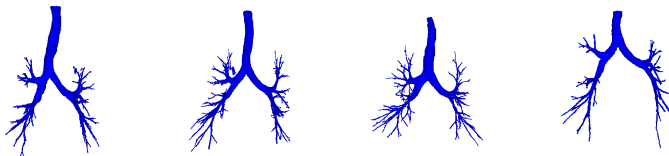
What does the average human airway tree look like? Nobody knows!





## Example 1: Human airway trees

What does the average human airway tree look like? Nobody knows!



Properties of airway trees:

- ▶ Topology, branch shape, branch radius
- ▶ Somewhat variable topology (combinatorics) in *anatomical* tree
- ▶ Substantial amount of noise in *segmented* trees (missing or spurious branches), especially in COPD patients, *i.e. inherently incomplete data*

## E

The raw segmented data is a tree embedded in  $3D$

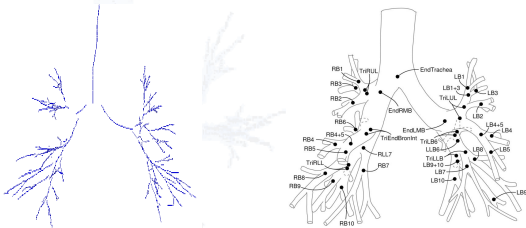


Figure: Right: Shamelessly borrowed from Tschirren, TMI 2005

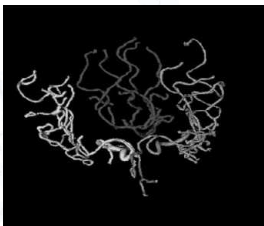
- ▶ Computational problem: comparing unordered branches
- ▶ Can we attach anatomical labels to the branches?
- ▶ Related question: Can we order the branches?
- ▶ If yes, then the tree-structures are far less complex!

## Example 1: Human airway trees

With statistical methods for tree-data, we could find out:

- ▶ how is the average airway tree, and how do the airway trees vary in different populations?
- ▶ are there different types of airway tree geometry, where some are more prone to illness than others?
- ▶ does the airway tree geometry change when you get ill?
- ▶ how do you distinguish a funny healthy structure from an ill structure? That is, how to analyze variation in tree data?

## Example 2: Blood vessels



**Figure:** Left: Shamelessly borrowed from Wang and Marron, Ann. Statistics, 2007

Properties:

- ▶ Different vessel types, very different complexity
- ▶ Connectivity, branch length, branch shape
- ▶ Easier to segment than airways, hence more precise data.

## Example 2: Blood vessels

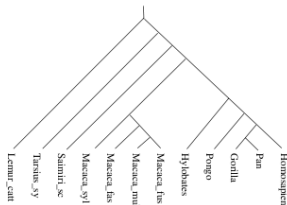
With tree-statistical methods, we can:

- ▶ Find average vessel structure and variation in different populations
- ▶ Look for correlation between illness and tree geometry

Difference from airways:

- ▶ In general, more variable structure from person to person
- ▶ Properties depend highly on vessel type

## Example 3: Phylogenetic trees



Properties of phylogenetic trees:

- ▶ Combinatorial tree with leaf labels
- ▶ branch lengths (describing time before division into species)
- ▶ Fixed leaf labels

## Example 3: Phylogenetic trees

- ▶ Given a set of leafs

(i.e. { human, gorilla, orangutan, computer scientist } ),

different methods for establishing their phylogenetic tree will give different result. An average tree would be a bid for "the correct" phylogenetic tree.

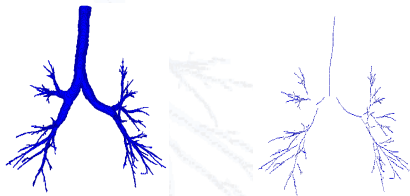
# Modeling geometric trees



## More general concept: Geometric trees

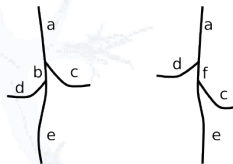
A geometric tree can be described as a combination of

- ▶ tree topology (connectivity / combinatorics)
- ▶ geometric branch descriptors (branch shape, length, parametrization, weight, other attributes)



## More general concept: Geometric trees

So why don't you just collect the edge information in a long vector and compute averages? Consider the *rather similar* trees:



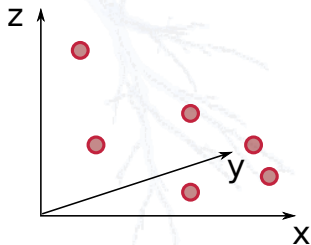
which are represented by the *rather different* vectors

$(a, b, c, d, e)$  and  $(a, d, f, e, c)$ .

**We need methods which can handle topological differences.**

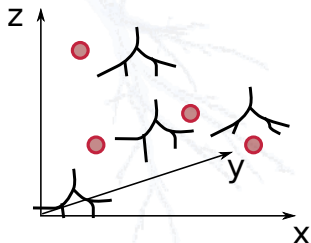
## A thought:

- Usually: statistics in Euclidean space of  $n$  dimensions  $\mathbb{R}^n$



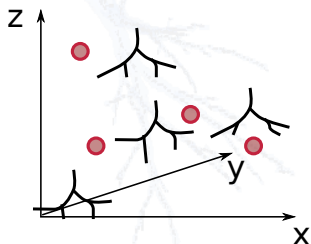
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- ▶ Usually: statistics in Euclidean space of  $n$  dimensions  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- ▶ Imagine a "space of geometric trees"



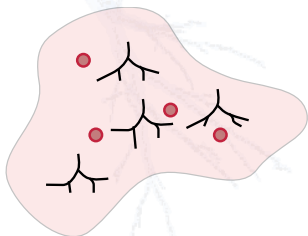
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- ▶ Usually: statistics in Euclidean space of  $n$  dimensions  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- ▶ Imagine a "space of geometric trees"
- ▶ Each point represents a tree



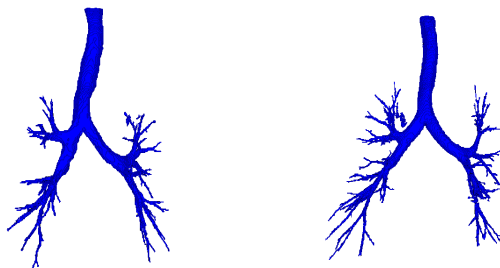
## A thought:

- ▶ Usually: statistics in Euclidean space of  $n$  dimensions  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- ▶ Imagine a "space of geometric trees"
- ▶ Each point represents a tree
- ▶ (And it is not really  $\mathbb{R}^n$ !)



## A thought:

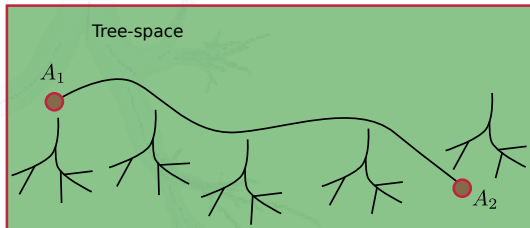
What if we were able to measure a "distance" (a metric) between two trees, which describes how similar (close) or different (far apart) they are?



Such distances would give us geometric tools to study the "space of all trees!"

## Hold that thought and bring it further:

- ▶ Can we define distances between airway trees that correspond to *traversed distances* in the space of trees?



- ▶ We get distance *and* a canonical, shortest deformation (a *geodesic*) from  $A_1$  to  $A_2$ .
- ▶ Play tree deformation movie



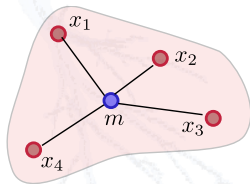
## Hold that thought and bring it further:

Redefine statistics geometrically:

### Definition

A *mean* of  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  is the point  $m$  which minimizes

$$f(m) = \sum_{i=1}^n d(x_i, m)^2.$$

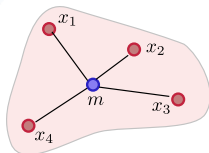


We seek situations where means are unique or locally unique.

## What else can we do with a geometric framework?

With (locally) unique geodesic deformations, we can start to define:

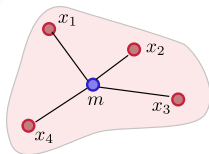
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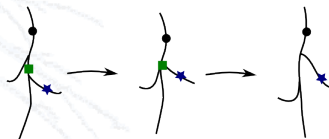
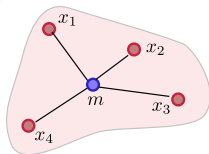
- ▶ shape of average tree
- ▶ "manifold" learning, dimensionality reduction, analysis of data variance



## What else can we do with a geometric framework?

With (locally) unique geodesic deformations, we can start to define:

- ▶ shape of average tree
- ▶ "manifold" learning, dimensionality reduction, analysis of data variance
- ▶ deformation-based registration and labeling



## The model we are looking for: qualitative properties



Figure: Tolerance of structural noise.

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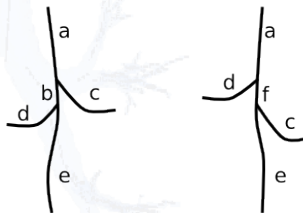
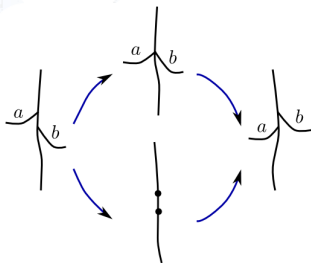


Figure: Tolerance of internal structural differences.

## The model we are looking for: qualitative properties



**Figure:** Top path: the  $a$  and  $b$  branches correspond to each other.  
Bottom path: They do not.

## The model we are looking for: qualitative properties



Figure: What about these situations?



# Classical example: Tree edit distance

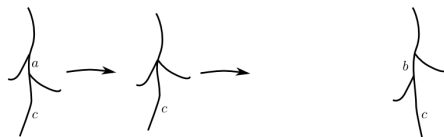
## Classical example: Tree edit distance (TED)

- ▶ TED is a classical, algorithmic distance
- ▶  $\text{dist}(T_1, T_2)$  is the minimal total cost of changing  $T_1$  into  $T_2$  through three basic operations:
- ▶ Remove edge, add edge, deform edge.



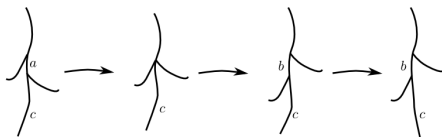
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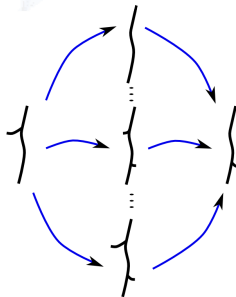
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## Classical example: Tree edit distance (TED)

- ▶ Almost all geodesics between pairs of trees are non-unique (infinitely many).



- ▶ Then what is the average of two trees? Many!
- ▶ TED is *not* suitable for statistics.

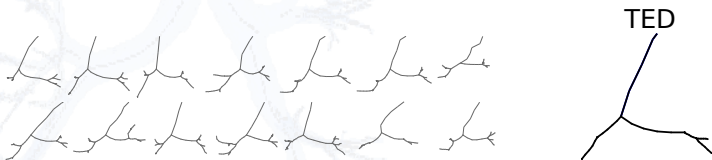
## Classical example: Tree edit distance (TED)

Most state-of-the-art approaches to distance measures and statistics on tree- and graph-structured data *are* based on TED!

- ▶ Wang and Marron: Object oriented data analysis: sets of trees. Annals of Statistics 35 (5), 2007.
- ▶ Ferrer, Valveny, Serratosa, Riesen, Bunke: Generalized median graph computation by means of graph embedding in vector spaces. Pattern Recognition 43 (4), 2010.
- ▶ Riesen and Bunke: Approximate Graph Edit Distance by means of Bipartite Graph Matching. Image and Vision Computing 27 (7), 2009.
- ▶ Trinh and Kimia, Learning Prototypical Shapes for Object Categories. CVPR workshops 2010.

## Classical example: Tree edit distance (TED)

- ▶ The problems can be "solved" by choosing specific geodesics.
- ▶ Geometric methods can no longer be used for proofs, and one risks choosing problematic paths.<sup>1</sup>



**Figure:** Right: Average upper airway trees computed using a method by Trinh and Kimia (CVPR workshops 2010) based on TED with the simplest possible choice of geodesics.

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<sup>1</sup>Feragen, Lo, de Bruijne, Nielsen, Lauze: Towards a theory of statistical tree-shape analysis, submitted.

## Classical example: Tree edit distance (TED)

- ▶ TED *is* successfully used for other applications, which only require a distance – e.g classification
- ▶ TED is computationally demanding (especially between unordered trees, where it is generally NP hard to compute)
- ▶ The problem of finding faster algorithms, either heuristic or approximations, is a whole research field in itself.
- ▶ For statistics, we need something else – let's get to work!



# Approach 1: The object-oriented data analysis of Marron et al<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>H. Wang and J. S. Marron. Object oriented data analysis: sets of trees. Annals of Statistics, 35(5):1849-1873, 2007.

## Tree representation

- Framework built to study brain blood vessels

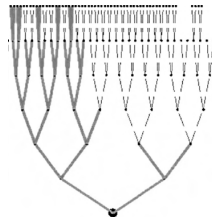
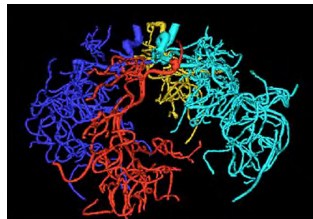


Figure: Figures from Aydin  
et al, 2009

## Tree representation

- ▶ Framework built to study brain blood vessels
- ▶ "Trees" are rooted, ordered combinatorial trees (vertices connected by branches) with vertex attributes

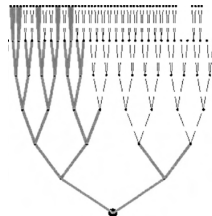
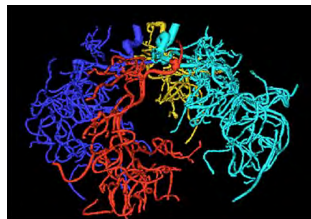


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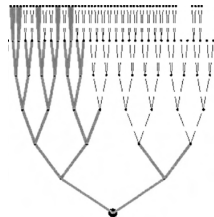
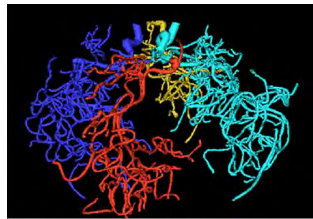


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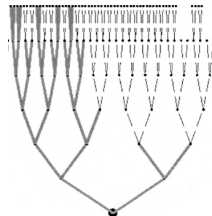
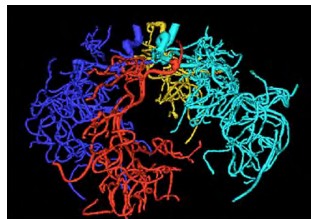


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- ▶ Trees are represented via an ordered, maximal binary tree (a "union" of all the trees in the dataset)  $T$  with vertices  $V$

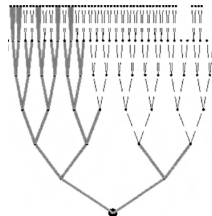
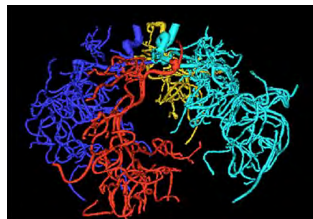


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- ▶ Trees are represented via an ordered, maximal binary tree (a "union" of all the trees in the dataset)  $T$  with vertices  $V$
- ▶ Vertex attributes form an ordered set of vectors  $\{A_v\}_{v \in V}$ , one for each vertex.

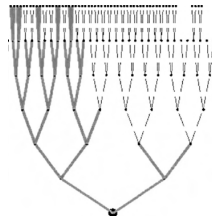
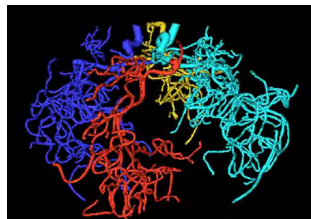
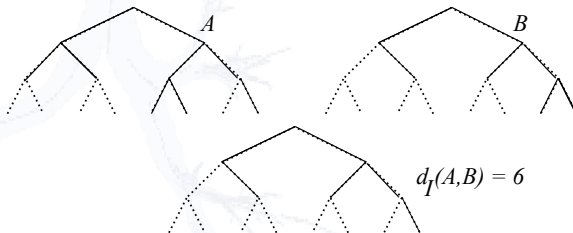


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## Tree metric

- Define a metric on the space of trees with vector attributes:

$$d(T_1, T_2) = d_I(T_1, T_2) + d_A(T_1, T_2)$$

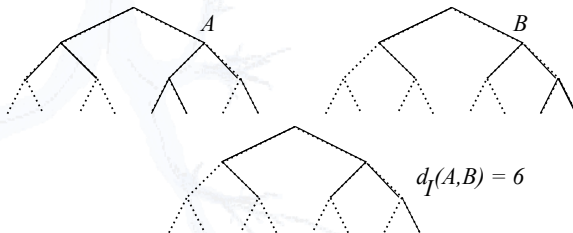




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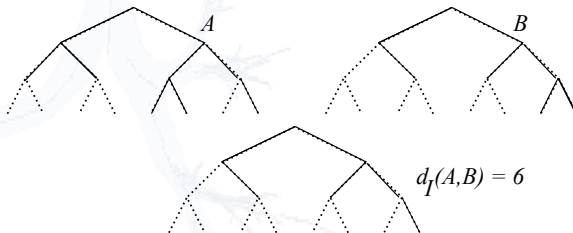


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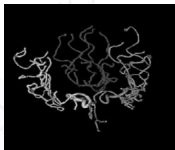


- $d_I$  counts the number of TED leaf deletions/additions needed to turn  $T_1$  into  $T_2$ ,
- $d_A$  is a weighted Euclidean metric on the attributes:

$$d_A(T_1, T_2) = \sqrt{\sum_{v \in V} c_v \|A_1(v) - A_2(v)\|^2},$$

## "Object Oriented Data Analysis"

- ▶ Metric used for analyzing clinical data (brain blood vessels).

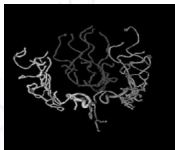


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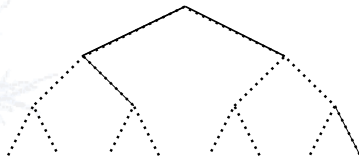
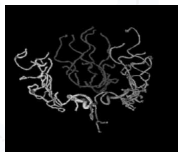
- ▶ Primary statistic: median-mean tree (combinatorial median, mean attributes)

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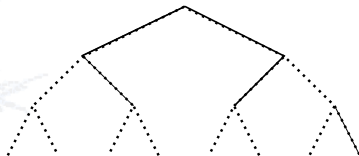
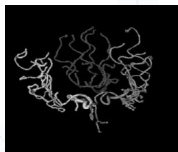
- ▶ Primary statistic: median-mean tree (combinatorial median, mean attributes)
- ▶ Secondary statistic: form of "PCA" where the principal components are "treelines"; describing directions in the tree where most of the variation is found. <sup>2</sup>

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## "Object Oriented Data Analysis"

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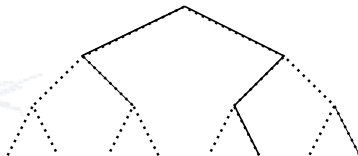
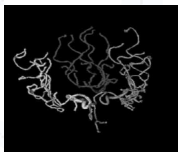
- ▶ Primary statistic: median-mean tree (combinatorial median, mean attributes)
- ▶ Secondary statistic: form of "PCA" where the principal components are "treelines"; describing directions in the tree where most of the variation is found. <sup>2</sup>

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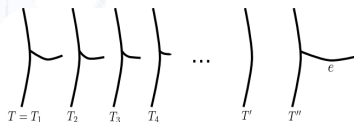
## Modeling issues

- ▶ The tree representation assumes a common, *ordered* underlying tree-structure



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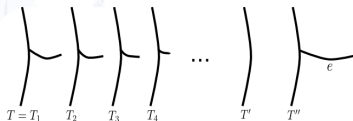
- ▶ The tree representation assumes a common, *ordered* underlying tree-structure
- ▶ The metric has discontinuities



**Figure:** The sequence  $T_n$  with edge length attributes, does not converge. The length of  $e$  is 3 and all the  $c_e$  are  $1/3$ ,  $\lim d(T_n, T')$  is the same as  $\lim d(T_n, T'') = 1$ .

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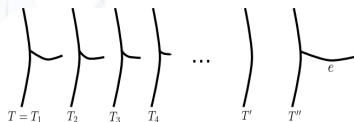


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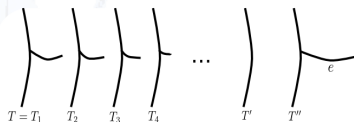


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- ▶ The median-means defined are not unique
- ▶ The treeline PCA is mostly combinatorial
- ▶ Application-specific metric.

## Summary

Pros:

- ▶ Easy to pass from the data tree to its representation
- ▶ Distances and statistical properties are easy and fast to compute
- ▶ First formulation of PCA for trees (or graphs?)

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### Pros:

- ▶ Easy to pass from the data tree to its representation
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### Cons:

- ▶ Modeling issues: Will not work for continuous, deformable trees, different topological structures
- ▶ Noise insensitivity, discontinuities
- ▶ No room for topological differences between trees except at leaves
- ▶ Statistical properties not well defined – for instance, a given set can have more than one median-mean

## Approach 2: Phylogenetic trees and their like

## Spaces of phylogenetic trees

- ▶ Billera et al. study the metric geometry of spaces of phylogenetic trees<sup>3</sup>, which describe genetic development of species.

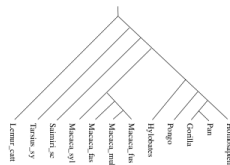


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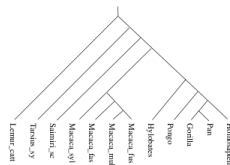


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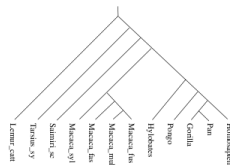


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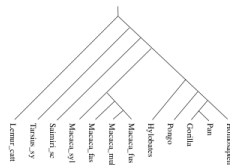


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- ▶ Metric geometry  $\rightsquigarrow$  existence and uniqueness of geodesics and dataset centroids, computation of centroids of a set of phylogenetic trees.
- ▶ Centroid computation is NP hard
- ▶ Model applies directly to leaf-labeled trees with constant labels sets and edge length attributes

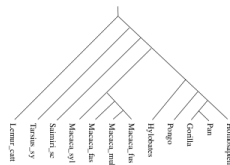


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- Fix a set of  $n$  leaf labels, e.g. {human, gorilla, orangutan, computer scientist}, or {1, 2, 3, 4}.

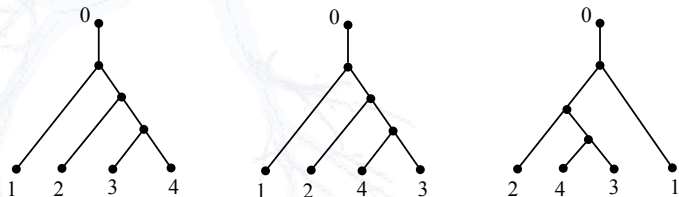


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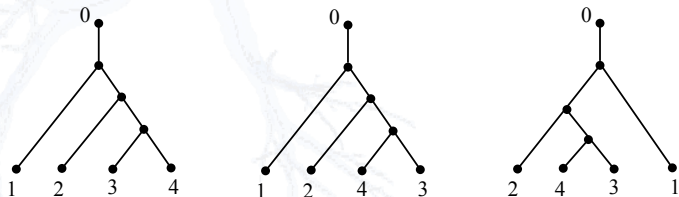


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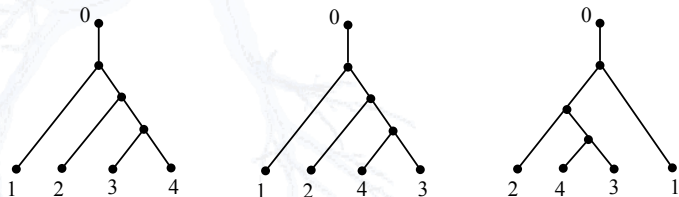


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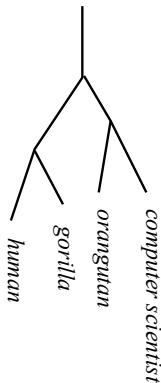
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This gives a *space of phylogenetic trees*:

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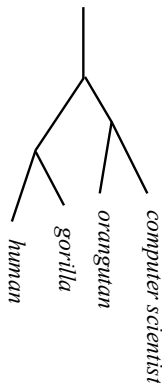




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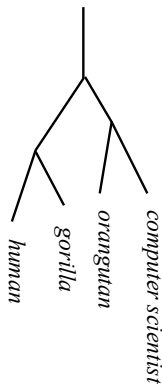
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- ▶ Now for a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}_+^N$  the coordinate  $x_i \geq 0$  is the length of the  $i^{th}$  branch
- ▶ Glue the quadrants together along the natural branch collapses



# The space of phylogenetic trees

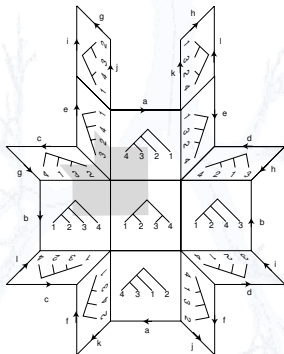


FIG. 4. Cubical tiling of  $M_{0,5}$ , where the arrows indicate oriented identifications.

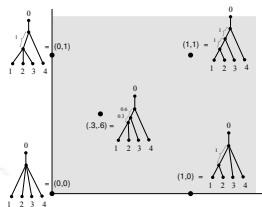


FIG. 8. The 2-dimensional quadrant corresponding to a metric 4-tree.

**Figure:** Figures shamelessly copied from Billera, Holmes, Vogtmann:  
Geometry of the space of Phylogenetic Trees

# The really cool thing about the space of phylogenetic trees!

Theorem (Billera, Holmes, Vogtmann)

*The space of phylogenetic trees is a  $CAT(0)$  space*

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What does that mean?

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## Statistics in metric spaces?

Recall that a metric space is a space  $X$  of points with a distance measure  $d$  such that

- ▶  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$
- ▶  $d(x, y) = 0$  if and only if  $x = y$
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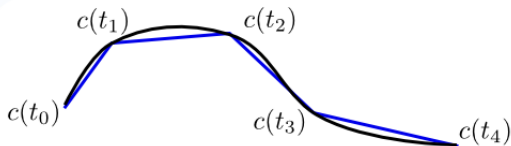
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- ▶ In order to formulate statistics, we want to have geodesics. What does the word "geodesic" even mean in a metric space?



## Geodesics in metric spaces

- ▶ Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. The length of a curve  $c: [a, b] \rightarrow X$  is

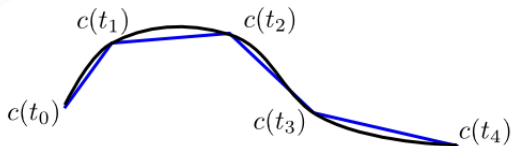
$$l(c) = \sup_{a=t_0 \leq t_1 \leq \dots \leq t_n=b} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} d(c(t_i), c(t_{i+1})).$$



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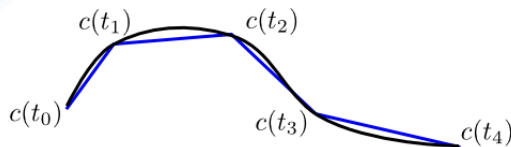


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## Geodesics in metric spaces

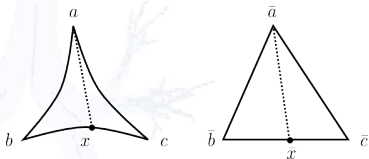
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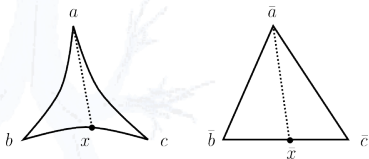
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- ▶  $(X, d)$  is a *geodesic space* if all pairs  $x, y$  can be joined by a geodesic.

## Curvature in metric spaces



- ▶ A  $CAT(0)$  space is a metric space in which geodesic triangles are "thinner" than for their comparison triangles in the plane; that is,  $d(x, a) \leq d(\bar{x}, \bar{a})$ .

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- ▶ A space has non-positive curvature if it is locally  $CAT(0)$ .

## Curvature in metric spaces

### Example

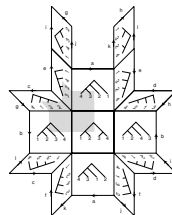


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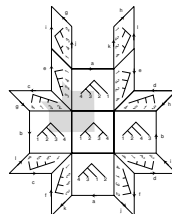


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Figure:  $CAT(0)$  spaces.

### Theorem (see e.g. Bridson-Haefliger)

Let  $(X, d)$  be a  $CAT(0)$  space; then all pairs of points have a unique geodesic joining them.

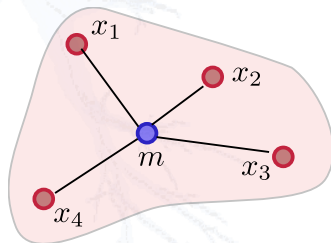


## Curvature in metric spaces

Subsets  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  in  $CAT(0)$ -spaces

### Theorem

<sup>4</sup> ...have unique means, defined as  $\operatorname{argmin} \sum d(x, x_i)^2$ .



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<sup>4</sup>Feragen, Hauberg, Nielsen, Lauze, *Means in spaces of treelike shapes*, ICCV 2011

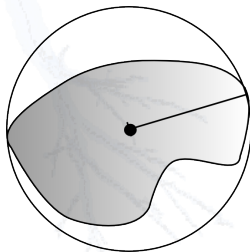


## Curvature in metric spaces

Subsets  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  in  $CAT(0)$ -spaces

**Theorem (Bridson, Haefliger)**

...have unique circumcenters, defined as the center of the smallest sphere containing all the  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ .



## Curvature in metric spaces

Subsets  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  in  $CAT(0)$ -spaces

Theorem (Billera, Vogtmann, Holmes)

...have unique centroids, defined by induction on  $|S| = n$ :

- ▶ If  $|S| = 2$ , then  $c(S)$  is the midpoint of the geodesic between the two elements of  $S$ .
- ▶ If  $|S| = n > 2$  and we have defined  $c(S')$  for all  $S'$  with  $|S'| < n$ , then denote by  $c^1(S)$  the set  $\{c(S') \mid S' \subset S, |S'| = n - 1\}$  and denote by  $c^k(S) = c^1(c^{k-1}(S))$  when  $k > 1$ .
- ▶ If  $c^k(S) \rightarrow p$  for some  $p \in \bar{X}$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $c(S) = p$  is the centroid of  $S$ . □

# Timeout over: Back to the phylogenetic trees

## What does this mean for the phylogenetic trees?

- ▶ We can compute average phylogenetic trees!
- ▶ Possible problem: Based on Billera, Holmes, Vogtmann, centroid phylogenetic trees have exponential computation time
- ▶ Moreover, geodesics between phylogenetic trees do not have obvious polynomial computation algorithms, either.

## Computability?

Using the  $CAT(0)$  properties, it is possible to prove:

### Theorem

<sup>4</sup> *There is a polynomial time algorithm for computing the geodesic between two phylogenetic trees.*

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<sup>4</sup>Owen, Provan: A Fast Algorithm for Computing Geodesic Distances in Tree Space, IEEE/ACM Transactions on Computational Biology and Bioinformatics, 2011

## Summary

Pros:

- ▶ A nice mathematical theory
- ▶ Computability
- ▶ Excellent modeling properties for phylogenetic trees
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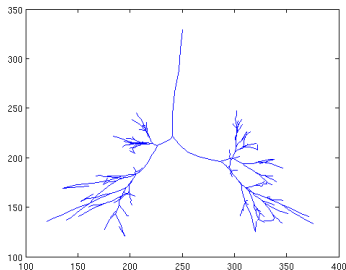
### Cons:

- ▶ Does not carry directly over to trees with more geometric branch descriptors
- ▶ Fixed branch label set
- ▶ Ordered trees ( $\Leftrightarrow$  leaf labels)
- ▶ No noise tolerance

## Approach 3: Statistical tree-shape analysis



## Motivating application: Airway shape analysis



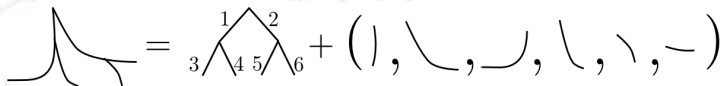
- ▶ Unlabeled (unordered) tree in 3D
- ▶ Different nr of branches
- ▶ Structural noise (missing/extra branches)

## Tree representation

### How to represent tree-like shapes mathematically?

Tree-like (pre-)shape = pair  $(\mathcal{T}, x)$

- $\mathcal{T} = (V, E, r, <)$  rooted, ordered/planar binary tree, describing the tree topology (combinatorics)



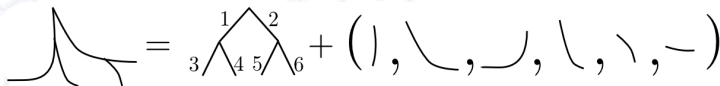
$$\text{Tree-like shape} = \text{Planar binary tree} + (|, \curvearrowleft, \curvearrowright, \curvearrowleft, \curvearrowright, -)$$

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- ▶  $\mathcal{T} = (V, E, r, <)$  rooted, ordered/planar binary tree, describing the tree topology (combinatorics)
- ▶  $x \in \prod_{e \in E} A$  a product of points in attribute space  $A$  describing edge shape



$$\text{Tree-like shape} = \text{Tree structure} + (\text{Edge shapes})$$

## Tree representation

We are allowing collapsed edges, which means that

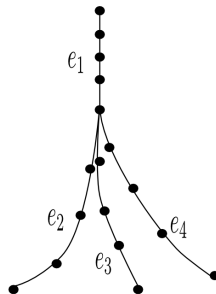
- ▶ we can represent higher order vertices
- ▶ we can represent trees of different sizes using the same combinatorial tree  $\mathcal{T}$



(dotted line = collapsed edge = zero/constant attribute)

## Tree representation

Edge representation through landmark points:  
Edge shape space is  $(\mathbb{R}^d)^n$ ,  $d = 2, 3$ .



## The space of tree-like preshapes

Fix a maximal combinatorial  $\mathcal{T}$ . We use a finite tree; could reformulate for infinite trees.

### Definition

Define the space of tree-like *pre*-shapes as the product space

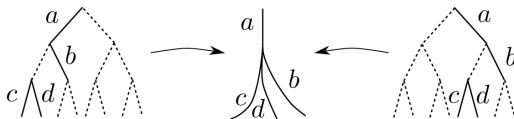
$$X = \prod_{e \in E} (\mathbb{R}^d)^n$$

where  $(\mathbb{R}^d)^n$  is the edge shape space.

This is just a space of *pre-shapes*.

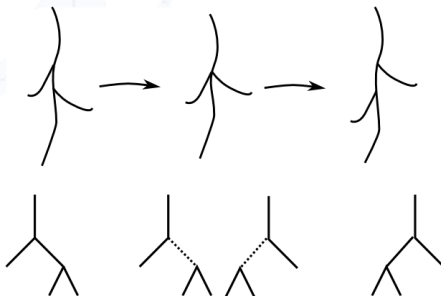
## From pre-shapes to shapes

Many shapes have more than one representation



## From pre-shapes to shapes

Not all shape deformations can be recovered as natural paths in the pre-shape space:



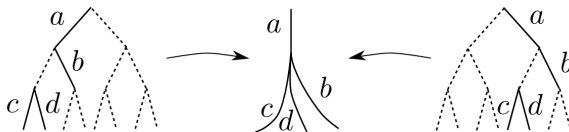


## Shape space definition

- ▶ Start with the pre-shape space  $X = \prod_{e \in E} (\mathbb{R}^d)^n$ .

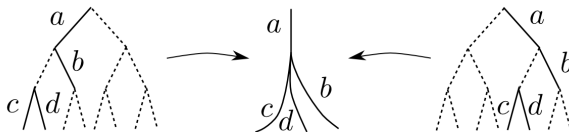
## Shape space definition

- ▶ Start with the pre-shape space  $X = \prod_{e \in E} (\mathbb{R}^d)^n$ .
- ▶ Glue together all points in  $X$  that represent the same tree-shape.



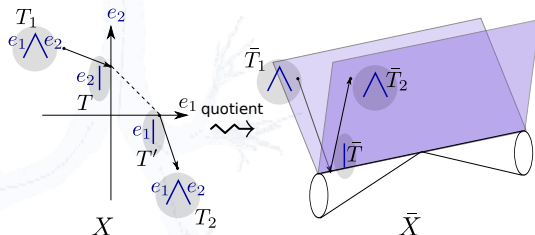
## Shape space definition

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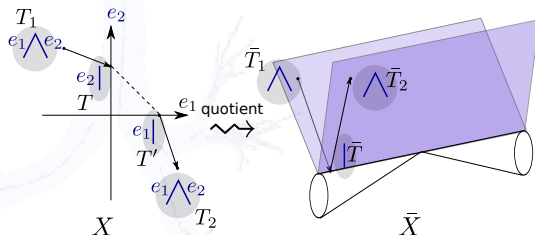
- ▶ This corresponds to identifying, or gluing together, subspaces  $\{x \in X | x_e = 0 \text{ if } e \notin E_1\}$  and  $\{x \in X | x_e = 0 \text{ if } e \notin E_2\}$  in  $X$ .

## Shape space definition



- For the landmark point shape space this is just a folded Euclidean space; we call it  $\bar{X}$ .

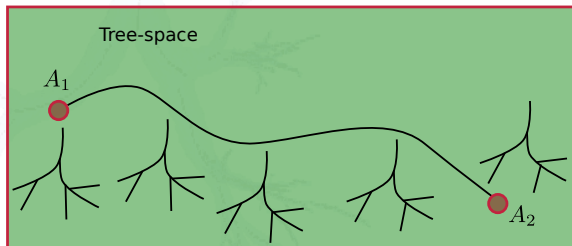
## Shape space definition



- ▶ For the landmark point shape space this is just a folded Euclidean space; we call it  $\bar{X}$ .
- ▶ The Euclidean norm on  $X$  induces a metric on  $\bar{X}$ , called QED (Quotient Euclidean Distance) metric.

## QED properties

It defines a geodesic metric space <sup>5</sup>



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<sup>5</sup>Feragen, Lo, de Bruijne, Nielsen, Lauze: Geometries in spaces of treelike shapes, ACCV 2010

## QED properties

Example of a QED geodesic deformation:



Play movie

Note the tolerance of topological differences and natural deformation.

## QED properties

Noise tolerance:



Sequences of trees with disappearing branches will converge towards trees without the same branch.



## Curvature of shape space

### Theorem

5

- ▶ Consider  $(\bar{X}, \bar{d}_2)$ , shape space with the QED metric.
- ▶ At generic points, this space has non-positive curvature, i.e. it is locally  $CAT(0)$ .
- ▶ Its geodesics are locally unique at generic points.
- ▶ At non-generic points, the curvature is unbounded.
- ▶ Sufficiently clustered datasets in  $\bar{X}$  will have unique means, centroids and circumcenters. □

---

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## 3D trees<sup>6</sup>

So far we talked about ordered tree-like shapes; what about unordered (spatial) tree-like shapes?

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<sup>6</sup>Feragen, Lo, de Bruijne, Nielsen, Lauze: Towards a theory of statistical tree-shape analysis, submitted

## 3D trees<sup>6</sup>

- ▶ Unordered trees: Give a random order
- ▶ Denote by  $G$  the group of reorderings of the edges that do not alter the connectivity of the tree.
- ▶ The space of unordered trees is the space  $\bar{\bar{X}} = \bar{X}/G$
- ▶ There is a (pseudo)metric on  $\bar{\bar{X}}$  induced from the Euclidean metric on  $X$ .
- ▶  $\bar{\bar{d}}(\bar{\bar{x}}, \bar{\bar{y}})$  corresponds to considering all possible orders on  $\bar{y}$  and choosing the order that minimizes  $\bar{\bar{d}}(\bar{\bar{x}}, \bar{y})$ .



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<sup>6</sup>Feragen, Lo, de Bruijne, Nielsen, Lauze: Towards a theory of statistical tree-shape analysis, submitted

## 3D trees<sup>6</sup>

### Theorem

- ▶ For the quotient pseudometric  $\bar{\bar{d}}$  induced by either  $\bar{d}_1$  or  $\bar{d}_2$ , the function  $\bar{\bar{d}}$  is a metric and  $(\bar{\bar{X}}, \bar{\bar{d}})$  is a geodesic space.
- ▶ At generic points,  $(\bar{\bar{X}}, \bar{\bar{d}}_2)$  has non-positive curvature, i.e. it is locally  $CAT(0)$ .
- ▶ At generic points, geodesics are locally unique-
- ▶ At generic points, sufficiently clustered data has unique means, circumcenters, centroids.
- ▶ ...so everything we proved for ordered trees, still holds. □

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<sup>6</sup>Feragen, Lo, de Bruijne, Nielsen, Lauze: Towards a theory of statistical tree-shape analysis, submitted

## Examples <sup>7</sup>

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<sup>7</sup>with S. Hauberg, M. Nielsen, F. Lauze, Means in spaces of treelike shapes, ICCV 2011

## Averages in the QED metric

Synthetic data:



Figure: A small set of synthetic planar tree-shapes.

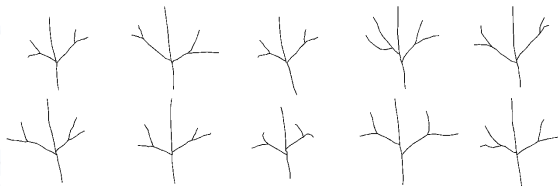


Figure: Left: Mean shape. Right: Centroid shape.

These choices of "average" give rather similar results.

## Averages in the QED metric

Leaf vasculature data:



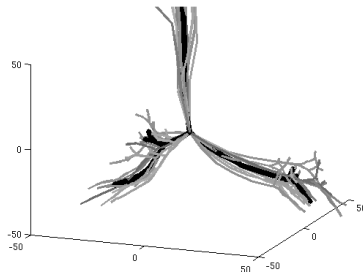
**Figure:** A set of vascular trees from ivy leaves form a set of planar tree-shapes.



**Figure:** a): The vascular trees are extracted from photos of ivy leaves. b) The mean vascular tree.

## Averages in the QED metric

Airway tree data:



**Figure:** A set of upper airway tree-shapes along with their mean tree-shape.



## Averages in the QED metric

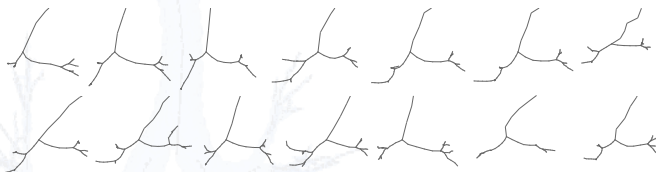


Figure: A set of upper airway tree-shapes (projected).<sup>8</sup>

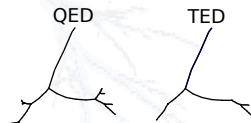


Figure: The QED and TED (algorithm by Trinh and Kimia) means.

<sup>8</sup>with P. Lo, M. de Bruijne, M. Nielsen, F. Lauze, submitted

## Summary

Pros:

- ▶ Strong modeling properties
- ▶ Does not require labels, ordered, or same number of branches
- ▶ Continuous topological transitions in geodesics
- ▶ Local  $CAT(0)$  property  $\Rightarrow$  promising for statistical computations
- ▶ Good noise-handling properties

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### Cons:

- ▶ Algorithmic properties
- ▶ Computational complexity



## Conclusions and open problems

## Conclusions

- ▶ The interplay between structure/topology/combinatorics and features (geometry) poses a challenging modeling problem
- ▶ There is often a tradeoff between modeling properties and computational complexity
- ▶ Analysis of tree-structured data can be attacked as a geometric, algorithmic, modeling, statistical, machine learning, .... -problem

## Open questions

- ▶ Statistical properties: How to analyze data variation? PCA analogues and so on?

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- ▶ Statistical properties: How to analyze data variation? PCA analogues and so on?
- ▶ How does the choice of branch attribute change the tree-space geometry in the different models?
- ▶ Can the models be generalized to graphs?
- ▶ Can we find efficient algorithms for computing distances and statistical measurements?
- ▶ Our main goal: Large-scale statistical studies on medical data
  - ▶ Geometry-based biomarkers for disease (COPD)?
  - ▶ Anatomical modeling?

## One more thing!

### Means in the Space of Phylogenetic Trees

Talk by Megan Owen  
on computational geometry and statistics  
for Phylogenetic trees  
30. august 2011 kl. 14 - 15 @DIKU