

Chapter 1

Eigenmorphs? Rational design of pattern and morphology in eigenspace

1.1 Background maths

1.2 Eigenfunctions of the laplacian

Eigenfunctions of the laplacian ∇^2 satisfy

$$\nabla^2 v(\mathbf{x}) + k^2 v(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \quad (1.1)$$

Given some boundary condition, such as $v = 0$ or $\nabla v = 0$ at the boundary Ω of the domain there is a discrete (infinite) set of functions $v_i(\mathbf{x})$, with eigenvalue k_i . For a 1-dimentional domain with zero boundary conditions for example, the eignfunctions are sine waves $\sin(k\pi/L)$ where L is the length of the domain and $k \in 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

On other arbitrary domains we have to compute them numerically. You can see they are waves because the equation says when $v > 0$ the curvature $\nabla^2 v < 0$ and vice versa.

1.3 Eigenfunction expansion or projection

They also have the nice property that they form a complete basis for the space of differentiable functions that satisfy the boundary conditions. That means that any pattern (gene expression, signal concentration, etc.) on a given domain (colony, organism, etc.) can be represented as a series

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i w_i v_i(\mathbf{x}) \quad (1.2)$$

Which is exactly the Fourier series for a rectangular or linear domain.

The equivalent of the Fourier transform for arbitrary shaped domains is the eigenspectrum, which gives the amount of each eigenfunction represented in a particular pattern

$$w_i = \langle f, v_i \rangle = \int_{\Omega} f(\mathbf{x}) v_i(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \quad (1.3)$$

1.4 Eigenvectors and discrete space

For computation we represent patterns on a regular grid like an image. It turns out convenient to string this out as a 1-dimensional vector of length $w \times h$ for an image of width w and height h . The operator ∇^2 is

then a matrix \mathbf{M} which has eigenvectors \mathbf{v}_i such that $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i\mathbf{v}_i$. The eigenvectors are images strung out as one-dimensional vectors. Note that now there are a finite number of eigenvectors equal to the number of grid points or pixels in the image.

The eigenspectrum is just a basis transformation from the grid basis, where each value in the grid (image) is an element of the vector, to the basis of eigenvectors. This is the natural frequency domain of the shape defined by the boundary conditions. Lets call this the eigenspace.

In discrete space we can define a matrix of eigenvectors \mathbf{W} where each column is an eigenvector \mathbf{v}_i such that

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{g} \quad (1.4)$$

is the eigenspace transform of the image \mathbf{g} , and

$$\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{W}^T\mathbf{w} \quad (1.5)$$

is the inverse transform. This is because the eigenvectors form an orthonormal basis for the space of images (patterns).

1.5 Design of pattern in eigenspace

This means we can compute the eigenspectrum of any pattern, for example one that we might want to design a genetic system to produce. Alternatively we could design the spectrum of shape that we require from our genetic system. It would be easy (relatively) to make a tool that allows you to adjust a curve and see the resulting pattern (in Matlab for example). This curve could be a polynomial for example. It seems reasonable that a useful biological pattern should be localised in eigenspace (frequency space). If all wavelengths are represented equally we have white noise, which possibly is maximal entropy.

What we would like to do is choose a pattern and infer a genetic mechanism coupled to signalling that could generate it. These genetic components would come from a registry of characterised parts. For theoretical work we show the principle for example by randomly generating part parameters to make a library.

1.6 Reaction diffusion systems

In this sense any patterning system can be seen as selecting (weighting) some eigenvectors more than others. Reaction-diffusion systems are an obvious example (there are others, see Murray).

$$u_t = \nabla^2 u + \gamma f(u, v) \quad (1.6)$$

$$v_t = d\nabla^2 v + \gamma g(u, v) \quad (1.7)$$

In general we can't predict the final pattern without solving numerically, but close to an equilibrium (homogeneous or heterogeneous) we can approximate the reaction term as linear in the perturbation $\mathbf{w} = (u - u_0, v - v_0)^T$ where (u_0, v_0) is the equilibrium giving

$$\mathbf{w}_t = \nabla^2 \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{w} \quad (1.8)$$

where \mathbf{A} is the Jacobian

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} f_u & f_v \\ g_u & g_v \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.9)$$

We can use this to do a linear stability analysis and test for patterning. The definition of a Turing system is that it has an unstable homogeneous equilibrium, and a stable heterogeneous equilibrium. Around the homogeneous equilibrium the behaviour can be approximated by the equation above. This is a linear equation and so the solutions can be expanded in eigenvectors to get

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{k=0}^N c_k \mathbf{W}_k e^{\lambda(k^2)t} \quad (1.10)$$

where $\lambda(k^2)$ is called the *dispersion relation* and tells us how each eigenvector (wave) grows in time. If $\lambda(k^2) > 0$ the wave grows, and this part of the perturbation is propagated. This is how the system effectively selects eigenvectors.

For a two-component reaction-diffusion system as above it can be shown (Murray) that the dispersion relation $\lambda(k^2)$ is a quadratic in k^2 . This means it has a single peak and a range $k_{min}^2 < k^2 < k_{max}^2$ for which $\lambda > 0$. (Note the use of k^2 is because the sign of the spatial eigenvalue k is irrelevant, bit tedious to explain this but it comes out in the expansion above when you compute the weights c_k).

Three things to note:

1. For a *linear* reaction-diffusion system (not at all realistic but useful to study) we can solve *exactly* the evolution of the system (eigenspace expansion above).
2. In general (non-linear systems) the only way to get the final eigenspectrum of a patterning system is to compute the solution numerically.
3. BUT, if we start from this equilibrium we *can* compute the evolution of *small* perturbations from the eigenspace expansion above. The spectrum says which waves grow.

This last point will be very useful when we consider growing domains below.

1.7 Growing domains

We want to think about patterns in growing populations of cells such as bacterial colonies or biofilms. Equally this could be plant or animal cells. The pattern is then formed on a domain $\Omega(t)$ that evolves in time. Lets define the shape with a level set $\phi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ which is such that $\phi(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0$ at the boundary $\partial\Omega(t)$. Ideally we then want to compute the time varying eigenfunctions $v_i(\mathbf{x}, t)$ and eigenvalues $k_i^2(t)$ of this growing domain. This tells us how the pattern evolves in time. Its not clear if this is possible so we'll just compute them numerically at discrete time steps. But anyway useful to keep in mind.

1.7.1 Speed does not vary in time

If the domain grows outwards perpendicular to its boundary at some speed $F(\mathbf{x}) > 0$ then the domain generated from some initial $\phi(\mathbf{x}, t = 0)$ can be found from the Eikonal equation (see Sethian paper),

$$|\nabla T| = \frac{1}{F} \quad (1.11)$$

where $T(\mathbf{x})$ is the time at which the boundary crosses the point \mathbf{x} , and the gradient is with boundary conditions $T = 0$ at the boundary defined by $\phi(\mathbf{x}, 0) = 0$. That is, points inside the domain $\Omega(t)$ are where $T(\mathbf{x}) \leq t$ at all times t .

1.7.2 Speed varying in time

More generally solve the equation

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = F(\mathbf{x}, t) |\nabla \phi(\mathbf{x})| \quad (1.12)$$

A simple approach is to take a small time step and say that the speed is approximately constant during this time. Then we solve at each time step t

$$\phi(t + \Delta t) = \phi(t) + F(\mathbf{x}, t) |\nabla \phi(\mathbf{x})| \Delta t \quad (1.13)$$

with some discretisation of ∇ , given appropriate boundary conditions.

1.7.3 Speed outside the domain

For our model we want the speed to be determined by some patterning system, genetics, signals etc. which are only defined on the domain (colony). We can't say that the speed is zero outside the domain because then it doesn't grow. This is an issue with the approach of tracking an interface between two things (phases). A simple solution, given zero-flux boundary conditions so that the speed is not changing at the boundary, is to extrapolate the speed outwards into the background.

I approximated this in matlab by finding the closest boundary point for every background pixel. I then set the speed at each background point to the closest boundary pixel's speed.

1.8 Discretisation of pattern into a matrix sequence

If we discretise time we can define a matrix at each time step that computes the laplacian with given boundary conditions. These boundary conditions are applied at pixels where $T(\mathbf{x}) < t$, or $\phi(\mathbf{x}, t) < 0$, with $t \in \Delta t\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$. If the matrix at each time step $t = j\Delta t$ is \mathbf{A}_j then we want to solve the eigensystem

$$\mathbf{A}_j \mathbf{v}_j + k_j^2 \mathbf{v}_j = 0 \quad (1.14)$$

So our pattern at time step $t = j\Delta t$ is a weighted linear combination of these vectors as described above. Since these matrices act on images (strung out as vectors) of the same size, we can write

$$\mathbf{A}_{j+1} = \mathbf{A}_j + \Delta \mathbf{A}_j \quad (1.15)$$

The difference between matrices at subsequent time steps $\Delta \mathbf{A}_j$ is due to the change in domain boundary location. The matrix applies a laplacian kernel at each pixel, a weighted sum of the pixel itself and its 4 neighbours. The weights of neighbours are either 1 or 2 depending if at the boundary. This means that when the domain changes some pixels which were weighted as a 1 become weighted as 2, and vice versa. So this is a very sparse matrix with only non-zero elements at rows corresponding to boundary pixels for the previous and new boundaries.

This is something to think more about. Can we get some information about changes in the eigenvectors/values from the structure of $\Delta \mathbf{A}$?

1.9 Coupling morphology to pattern

Now it gets more interesting. The speed function $F(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is a pattern on our growing domain, colony biofilm etc. So we could decompose it into eigenvectors. But it seems to me that the rate of motion is going to be a complicated non-linear function of some underlying pattern of gene expression.

$$F(\mathbf{x}, t) = F(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, t)) \quad (1.16)$$

where $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is a vector of gene expression levels. In general then this is generated by some patterning system that selects eigenfunctions as discussed above.

Now we have the coupled systems

$$\phi_{j+1} = \phi_j + F(\mathbf{u}_j) |\nabla \phi_j| \Delta t \quad (1.17)$$

and the eigensystem

$$\mathbf{A}_j \mathbf{v}_j + k_j^2 \mathbf{v}_j = 0 \quad (1.18)$$

where \mathbf{A}_j encodes the laplacian with boundary given by $\phi_j(\mathbf{x}) = 0$, and the pattern \mathbf{u} is a weighted sum of these eigenvectors

$$\mathbf{u}_j = \sum_{k=0}^N c_k \mathbf{v}_k e^{\lambda(k^2)\Delta t} \quad (1.19)$$

and the weights c_k are the projection of \mathbf{u}_j into the new

1.10 Morphology in eigenspace?

1.11 Appearance of cells as transitions through eigenfunctions as stable modes

Conceptually cells in a tissue are periodic structures, and so can be described using the approach above. You could think of the distribution of any molecular constituent of a cell as a pattern, and that pattern is described by a linear combination of eigenfunctions or waves. More abstractly one could think of a pattern that is the probability distribution for something. This could for example be the probability of observing the nucleus, that is the unit of identity for that organism. Or why not the distribution of a gene? Or of an epigenetic state/switch? Those patterns then are actually what we use to define a cell.

A function/pattern satisfying given boundary conditions, and subject to integrating to unity, is a wave function. This is analagous to quantum mechanics and Schroedinger's equation.

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