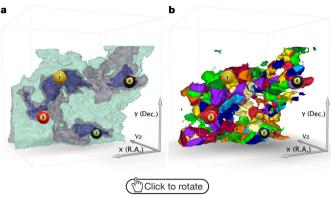
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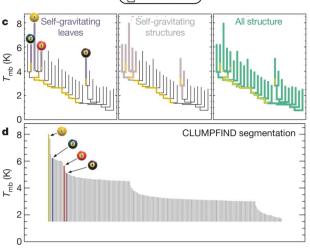


Figure 2 | Comparison of the 'dendrogram' and 'CLUMPFIND' featureidentification algorithms as applied to <sup>13</sup>CO emission from the L1448 region of Perseus. a, 3D visualization of the surfaces indicated by colours in the dendrogram shown in c. Purple illustrates the smallest scale selfgravitating structures in the region corresponding to the leaves of the dendrogram; pink shows the smallest surfaces that contain distinct selfgravitating leaves within them; and green corresponds to the surface in the data cube containing all the significant emission. Dendrogram branches corresponding to self-gravitating objects have been highlighted in yellow over the range of  $T_{\rm mb}$  (main-beam temperature) test-level values for which the virial parameter is less than 2. The x-y locations of the four 'selfgravitating' leaves labelled with billiard balls are the same as those shown in Fig. 1. The 3D visualizations show position–position–velocity  $(p-p-\nu)$  space. RA, right ascension; dec., declination. For comparison with the ability of dendrograms (c) to track hierarchical structure, d shows a pseudodendrogram of the CLUMPFIND segmentation (b), with the same four labels used in Fig. 1 and in a. As 'clumps' are not allowed to belong to larger structures, each pseudo-branch in d is simply a series of lines connecting the maximum emission value in each clump to the threshold value. A very large number of clumps appears in **b** because of the sensitivity of CLUMPFIND to noise and small-scale structure in the data. In the online PDF version, the 3D cubes (a and b) can be rotated to any orientation, and surfaces can be turned on and off (interaction requires Adobe Acrobat version 7.0.8 or higher). In the printed version, the front face of each 3D cube (the 'home' view in the interactive online version) corresponds exactly to the patch of sky shown in Fig. 1, and velocity with respect to the Local Standard of Rest increases from front  $(-0.5 \,\mathrm{km \, s}^{-1})$  to back  $(8 \,\mathrm{km \, s}^{-1})$ .

data, CLUMPFIND typically finds features on a limited range of scales, above but close to the physical resolution of the data, and its results can be overly dependent on input parameters. By tuning CLUMPFIND's two free parameters, the same molecular-line data set<sup>8</sup> can be used to show either that the frequency distribution of clump mass is the same as the initial mass function of stars or that it follows the much shallower mass function associated with large-scale molecular clouds (Supplementary Fig. 1).

Four years before the advent of CLUMPFIND, 'structure trees'9 were proposed as a way to characterize clouds' hierarchical structure

using 2D maps of column density. With this early 2D work as inspiration, we have developed a structure-identification algorithm that abstracts the hierarchical structure of a 3D  $(p-p-\nu)$  data cube into an easily visualized representation called a 'dendrogram'<sup>10</sup>. Although well developed in other data-intensive fields'<sup>11,12</sup>, it is curious that the application of tree methodologies so far in astrophysics has been rare, and almost exclusively within the area of galaxy evolution, where 'merger trees' are being used with increasing frequency<sup>13</sup>.

Figure 3 and its legend explain the construction of dendrograms schematically. The dendrogram quantifies how and where local maxima of emission merge with each other, and its implementation is explained in Supplementary Methods. Critically, the dendrogram is determined almost entirely by the data itself, and it has negligible sensitivity to algorithm parameters. To make graphical presentation possible on paper and 2D screens, we 'flatten' the dendrograms of 3D data (see Fig. 3 and its legend), by sorting their 'branches' to not cross, which eliminates dimensional information on the *x* axis while preserving all information about connectivity and hierarchy. Numbered 'billiard ball' labels in the figures let the reader match features between a 2D map (Fig. 1), an interactive 3D map (Fig. 2a online) and a sorted dendrogram (Fig. 2c).

A dendrogram of a spectral-line data cube allows for the estimation of key physical properties associated with volumes bounded by isosurfaces, such as radius (R), velocity dispersion ( $\sigma_{\nu}$ ) and luminosity (L). The volumes can have any shape, and in other work<sup>14</sup> we focus on the significance of the especially elongated features seen in L1448 (Fig. 2a). The luminosity is an approximate proxy for mass, such that  $M_{\text{lum}} = X_{13\text{CO}} L_{13\text{CO}}$ , where  $X_{13\text{CO}} = 8.0 \times 10^{20} \,\text{cm}^2 \,\text{K}^{-1} \,\text{km}^{-1} \,\text{s}$ (ref. 15; see Supplementary Methods and Supplementary Fig. 2). The derived values for size, mass and velocity dispersion can then be used to estimate the role of self-gravity at each point in the hierarchy, via calculation of an 'observed' virial parameter,  $\alpha_{\rm obs} = 5\sigma_{\nu}^2 R/GM_{\rm lum}$ . In principle, extended portions of the tree (Fig. 2, yellow highlighting) where  $\alpha_{obs}$  < 2 (where gravitational energy is comparable to or larger than kinetic energy) correspond to regions of  $p-p-\nu$  space where selfgravity is significant. As  $\alpha_{obs}$  only represents the ratio of kinetic energy to gravitational energy at one point in time, and does not explicitly capture external over-pressure and/or magnetic fields<sup>16</sup>, its measured value should only be used as a guide to the longevity (boundedness) of any particular feature.

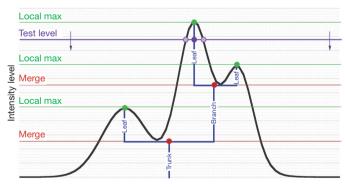


Figure 3 | Schematic illustration of the dendrogram process. Shown is the construction of a dendrogram from a hypothetical one-dimensional emission profile (black). The dendrogram (blue) can be constructed by 'dropping' a test constant emission level (purple) from above in tiny steps (exaggerated in size here, light lines) until all the local maxima and mergers are found, and connected as shown. The intersection of a test level with the emission is a set of points (for example the light purple dots) in one dimension, a planar curve in two dimensions, and an isosurface in three dimensions. The dendrogram of 3D data shown in Fig. 2c is the direct analogue of the tree shown here, only constructed from 'isosurface' rather than 'point' intersections. It has been sorted and flattened for representation on a flat page, as fully representing dendrograms for 3D data cubes would require four dimensions.