Hidden Structure in Data

Object Data and Keys to Designing Parameter-Efficient Models

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Introduction

Invariance and Equivariance

Important Geometric Tools/Concepts

Statistical Analysis for Object Data

Motivation

- Modern data are often of high dimension and complex.
- A typical approach is to represent the data as vectors or matrices.
- Unconstrained vector/matrix representation is not able to reveal the hidden structure in the data.
- We need to figure out how to decompose data into different "modes" in order to have a deeper understanding of the data.
- Modes of Variation: data variation in different modes, i.e., variation in length, direction, etc.

Example

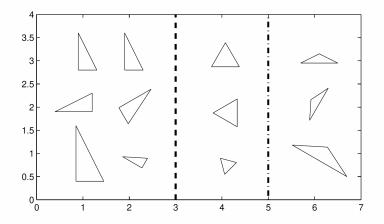


Figure: Orbits in the space of all triangles [1, Fig. 1.9].

Triangle Example

- If we use a 3 × 2 matrix to represent a triangle, we are not able to easily tell whether two triangles are different in size, orientation, position, or shape.
- Size: $a \in \mathbb{R}_+$ (1 degree of freedom)
- Position: $o \in \mathbb{R}^2$ (2 degrees of freedom)
- Orientation: $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ (1 degree of freedom)
- The remaining degrees 6 1 2 1 = 2 are responsible for shape.
- What is the space for shapes?

What is Object Data?

- Traditionally, the samples are represented as vectors or matrices.
- Constrained vectors/matrices are able to represent the data more accurately.
- Example: vector with unity length \Rightarrow direction
- ► Usually, the constraints make the sample space non-Euclidean.
- Object data are those residing on a non-Euclidean space, e.g., a curved space.

Connectivity Matrix

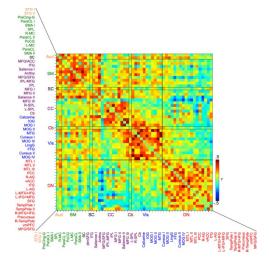


Figure: Functional Connectivity Matrix [2, Fig. 3].

Phylogenetic Tree

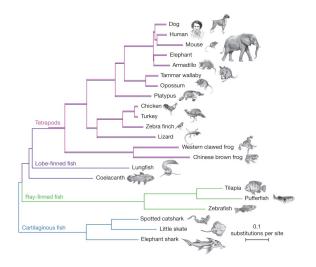


Figure: Phylogenetic Tree [3].

Shape

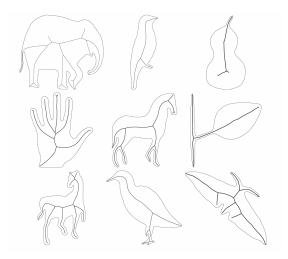


Figure: Example of planar shapes [4, Fig. 4.5].

Sample Space of Object Data

- The sample spaces of the object data are all non-Euclidean: the tree space, the space of SPD matrices, the shape space, etc.
- Vector operations, e.g., addition and scalar multiplication, are no longer valid.
- How can we compute some simple statistics, e.g., mean?

Invariance and Equivariance

- Invariance: When the samples are transformed, the inference remains unchanged.
- Equivariance: When the samples are transformed, the inference changes accordingly.
- Example:
 - Sample mean is equivariant to translation and scale
 - Variance is invariant to translation but equivariant to scale
- Invariance/Equivariance allow us to transform the data to make inference easier.

Location-Scale Invariance and Equivariance

- ► The *t*-test is invariant to location-scale transformations.
 - \Rightarrow We can standardize the data without changing the conclusion.
- Linear regression is also invariant/equivariant to location-scale transformations.
- What invariance/equivariance to object data have?
 - \Rightarrow It depends on the sample space of the object data.

Invariance/Equivariance for Object Data

- Scale/rotation/translation invariance for shapes.
- Antipodal invariance for directions.
- Rotation/affine invariance for SPD matrices.

An Example: The Shape of the Corpus Callosum

- The shape of the CC varies with age, sex, intellectual ability, etc.
- Its size and shape are also associated with disease progression of some neurodevelopmental disorders, such as autism and Schizophrenia.

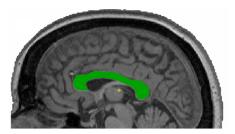


Figure: The shape of a corpus callosum [5].

Statistical Questions about Shapes



Figure: The CC shapes of male (blue) and female (magenta).

How can we answer some statistical questions about shapes? For example,

- Test H₀: Shape of Female = Shape of Male.
- What variations in shape are associated with sex?
- What is the relationship between age and the shape of CC?

What do we need to analyze object data?

- ► Suppose now we have some observations X₁,..., X_n from the sample space X.
- What is the most important notion we need for X in order to perform statistical analysis?
 - probability distribution?
 - sample mean?
 - expectation/variance?
- The most fundamental one is a **distance**, or any measure of dissimilarity.

Recall: what is a distance?

A distance $d: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ is a function such that

- 1. $d(x, y) \ge 0$ and d(x, y) = 0 iff x = y,
- **2**. d(x, y) = d(y, x), and
- 3. $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(y, z)$ for any $x, y, z \in \mathcal{X}$.
- The pair (\mathcal{X}, d) is called a *metric space*.
- A distance has more than what we need; in many cases, a *divergence* also works.
- ▶ We will see what we can achieve with only a distance function.

Fréchet Mean

- Let (\mathcal{X}, d) be a metric space and $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$.
- Define $F: \mathcal{X} \to [0, \infty)$ by

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

- This is called the Fréchet variance at m.
- ▶ The set of minimizers of *F* is called the Fréchet mean set of *x*₁,...,*x*_n.

Example: $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$

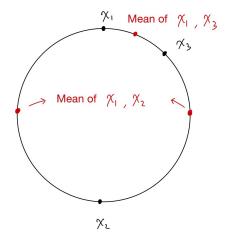
- Let $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$ and d(x, y) = |x y|.
- Then $F(m) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i m)^2$.
- ► The Fréchet mean of x₁,..., x_n is

$$\underset{m \in \mathbb{R}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - m)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \bar{x}.$$

The Fréchet mean is a generalization of the arithmetic mean to general metric spaces.

Example: Circle

▶ Let $\mathcal{X} = S^1 = \{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 = 1\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ and $d(x_1, x_2) = \arccos(x_1^T x_2)$, i.e., the angle between x_1 and x_2 .



Fréchet Mean

- ▶ In general, there is no unique sample mean for $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$.
- However, if
 - 1. \mathcal{X} has non-positive sectional curvatures, or
 - 2. x_1, \ldots, x_n are "not far from each other",

the FM of x_1, \ldots, x_n is unique.

- Examples of non-positively curved spaces: \mathbb{R}^d , SPD(*d*), etc.
- Examples of positively curved spaces: sphere, etc.
- For circles/spheres, if all the samples are in the same hemisphere, the FM is unique.

What can we do with FM?

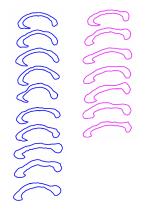


Figure: The CC shapes of male (blue) and female (magenta).

Test H_0 : Shape of Female = Shape of Male.

- 1. Compute the FM of shapes for two groups: \bar{X}_M and \bar{X}_F .
- 2. Compute the distance $d_{obs} = d(\bar{X}_M, \bar{X}_F)$.
- 3. Use permutation test to obtain a *p*-value.

Geodesic

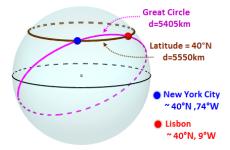
- For x₀, x₁ ∈ X, a geodesic γ(t) with γ(0) = x₀ and γ(1) = x₁ is a curve such that Length_{t∈[0,1]}(γ) = d(x₀, x₁).
- On a manifold *M*, a geodesic can also be determined by a point *x* ∈ *M* and a tangent vector *v* ∈ *T_xM*.
- Given *x* ∈ *M* and *v* ∈ *T_xM*, the geodesic is the solution to the differential equation *γ*′(0) = *v* with the initial condition *γ*(0) = *x*.

Example: Geodesics on a Sphere

▶ Let $S^n = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} : ||x|| = 1\}$. The geodesic for $x \in S^n$ and $\mathbf{v} \in T_x S^n$ is

$$\gamma(t) = \cos(\|\mathbf{v}\|t)x + \sin(\|\mathbf{v}\|t)\frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}.$$

For a sphere, the geodesic is a segment of a great circle.



Exp/Log Map for a Manifold

- Let \mathcal{M} be a manifold and $T_x \mathcal{M}$ be the tangent space of \mathcal{M} at x.
- $T_x \mathcal{M}$ is a vector space.
- $\gamma_v(t)$ is a geodesic starting at *x* with direction *v*.

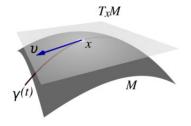


Figure: The tangent space at *x*.

Exp/Log Map for a Manifold

- Exponential map: $\text{Exp}_x : T_x \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{M}$ (always exists).
- ▶ Log Map: $Log_x : M \to T_xM$ (exists only on a neighborhood of *x*).
- ▶ In fact, $d(x_i, x_j) = \|Log_{x_i}(x_j)\|$ provided that the log map exists.

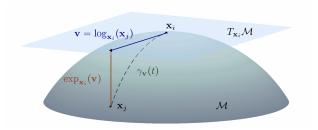


Figure: The Log/Exp map [6, Fig. 1].

Principal Geodesic Analysis

- Find a FM μ .
- Project all the data onto $T_{\mu}\mathcal{M}$ using the Log map.
- Perform PCA on the tangent space.

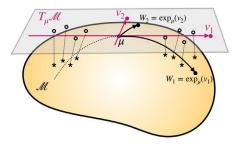


Figure: Principal Geodesic Analysis [7].

Geodesic Regression

- Suppose now we have $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$ and $y_i \in \mathcal{M}$.
- We want to model the relationship between x_i and y_i .

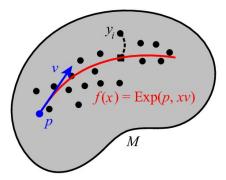


Figure: Geodesic Regression [8].

Geodesic Regression

Model:

$$y = \mathsf{Exp}_p(xv + \epsilon), \epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I)$$
(1)

• The point $p \in \mathcal{M}$ is the "intercept" and $v \in T_p\mathcal{M}$ is the "slope".

Suppose Log_p exists. Model (1) is equivalent to

$$\log_p y = xv + \epsilon,$$

that is, it is the linear regression on the tangent space $T_p\mathcal{M}$.

Linearization

- When the sample space is a manifold, we can use the Exp/Log map to map the samples to a vector space back and forth.
- The vector space is often the tangent space at an FM.
- On the tangent space, we can apply the usual statistical methods.
- Example: PCA and linear regression on the tangent space.

Problems with linearization

- The linearization technique works well only when the samples are clustered.
- There is no natural coordinate system on the tangent space.
- Linearization relies on the FM, which might not be unique.
- Linearization loses the geometrical information of the sample space.

Extrinsic Methods

- In many cases, the sample space is embedded in a higher dimensional Euclidean space.
- For example, x₁,..., x_n ∈ S² ⊆ ℝ³ are represented as 3-dim vectors but they are actually on a 2-dim manifold (sphere).
- What if we consider

$$\tilde{x} = \frac{\bar{x}}{\|\bar{x}\|}, \text{ where } \bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i ?$$

- Will it be the same as $FM(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$? In general, no.
- FM (x_1, \ldots, x_n) is also called an intrinsic mean, and \tilde{x} is called an extrinsic mean.

Extrinsic Methods

- Suppose we have X₁,..., X_n ∈ M ⊆ ℝ^d where M is a k-dim manifold and k ≪ d.
- We can simply treat the X_i 's as *d*-dim vectors.
- However, d is larger than the actual dimension of X_i's and hence we might need a larger model.

Conclusion

- For object data, we can do some basic statistical analysis with only the notion of a distance.
- Geodesics and other more advanced geometric concepts are also helpful.
- Linearization and extrinsic approaches are good first steps. However, they work well only when the data are clustered.

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