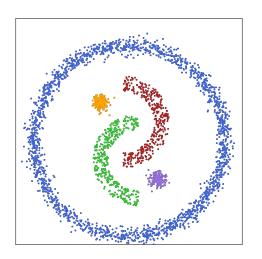
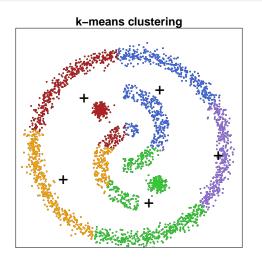
#### SKELETON CLUSTERING AND REGRESSION.

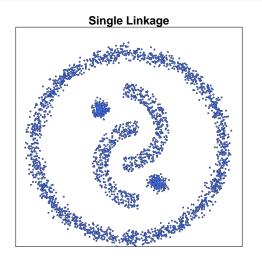
#### Yen-Chi Chen

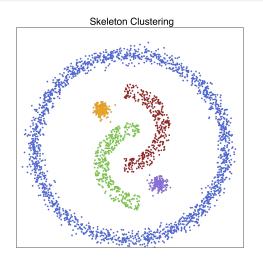
Department of Statistics
University of Washington
• Supported by NSF DMS - 195278 and DMS - 2112907 and DMS - 2141808.
Joint work with Jerry (Zeyu) Wei







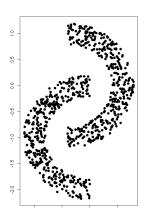




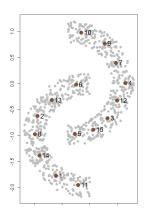
#### Idea:

- We start with applying k-means clustering to the whole data with a large *k*.
- We then merge two clusters if they overlap a lot.

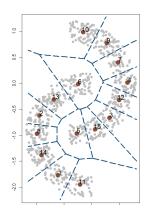
This procedure can be summarized as constructing a weighted graph called skeleton graph.



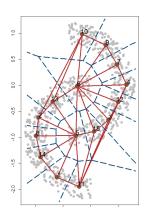
Original data.



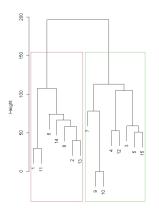
*k*-means: generating knots (centers of *k*-means clusters);  $k = \sqrt{n}$ .



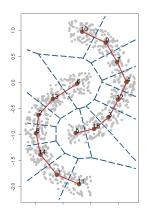
Voronoi cells of knots.



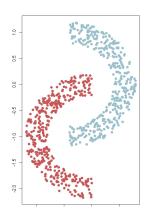
Delaunay triangulations—creating a graph. Assign a density-based weights on the edge to measure overlapping.



Convert a weighted graph into a dendrogram.



Cut the dendrogram to form the final clusters.



Final clustering result.

## Measuring the overlap between two knots

- Data:  $X_1, \dots, X_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .
- Centers of k-means:  $c_1, \dots, c_k$ .
- Partition of data:

$$\mathfrak{X}_{\ell} = \{X_i : d(X_i, c_{\ell}) < d(X_i, c_j), \quad j \neq \ell\}$$

for knot  $c_{\ell}$ .

• Goal: we want to create a quantity to measure the overlap between  $c_j, c_\ell$ .

### Voronoi density

- Intuition:  $c_i$  and  $c_\ell$  have a high overlap if
  - 1. they are close, i.e.,  $||c_i c_\ell||$  is small,
  - 2. there are many observations between the  $c_i$  and  $c_\ell$
- Define the 2-NN region of  $c_j$  and  $c_\ell$ :

$$A_{j\ell} = \{x: d(x,c_k) > \max\{d(x,c_j),d(x,c_\ell)\}, \, \forall k \neq j,\ell\}.$$

Namely, the 2-NN of knots at x is  $c_i$ ,  $c_\ell$ .

- Let  $\mathbb{P}_n(A) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i \in A)$  be the empirical measure of the set A.
- We define the Voronoi density of  $c_i$ ,  $c_\ell$  as

$$\widehat{S}_{j\ell}^{VD} = \frac{\widehat{P}_n(A_{j\ell})}{\|c_j - c_\ell\|}.$$

## Voronoi density: remarks

Recall that

$$\begin{split} A_{j\ell} &= \{x: d(x,c_k) > \max\{d(x,c_j),d(x,c_\ell)\},\,\forall k\},\\ \widehat{S}_{j\ell}^{VD} &= \frac{\widehat{P}_n(A_{j\ell})}{\|c_j-c_\ell\|}. \end{split}$$

- Clearly,  $\widehat{S}_{i\ell}^{VD} = 0$  if  $c_j$  and  $c_\ell$  do not share a boundary.
- A population version of  $\widehat{S}_{i\ell}^{VD}$  is

$$S_{j\ell}^{VD} = \frac{P(A_{j\ell})}{\|c_j - c_\ell\|},$$

where  $P(A_{j\ell}) = P(X_i \in A_{j\ell})$ . The convergence is fast assuming that knots are fixed.

### Alternatives: Face density

- The Voroni density is not the only way to measure the overlap.
- We also have some other good alternatives although the Voronoi density works the best in practice.
- Face density:

$$\widehat{S}_{j\ell}^{FD} = \widehat{\rho}_{j\ell} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right),\,$$

#### where

- $\widehat{\rho}_{j\ell}(t)$  is the KDE using observations in  $\mathfrak{X}_j$ ,  $\mathfrak{X}_\ell$  projected onto the line segment  $\overline{c_jc_\ell}$  and evaluated at  $t \cdot c_j + (1-t)c_\ell$ .
- Thus,  $\widehat{\rho}_{j\ell}(\frac{1}{2})$  is the midpoint (on the boundary).

### Alternatives: Tube density

- Similar to the face density, we also consider the tube density.
- Tube density:

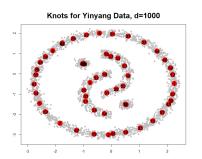
$$\widehat{S}_{j\ell}^{TD} = \min_{t \in [0,1]} \widehat{\omega}_{j\ell,R}(t),$$

where

- $\widehat{\omega}_{j\ell,R}(t)$  is the KDE of all observations projected to  $\overline{c_jc_\ell}$  and evaluated at  $t \cdot c_j + (1-t)c_\ell$  with a projected distance less than R.
- Namely,

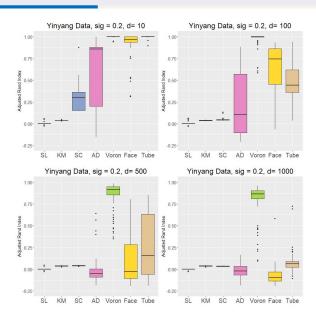
$$\widehat{\omega}_{j\ell,R}(t) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K\left(\frac{\prod_{j\ell}(X_i) - t \cdot c_j - (1-t)c_\ell}{h}\right) I(d(X_i, \overline{c_j c_\ell}) < R).$$

## Simulation: Yingyang

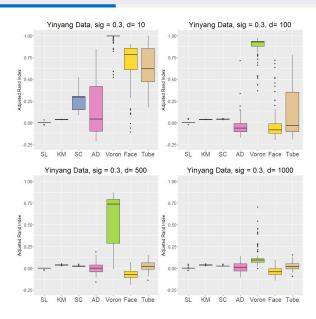


- An yingyang shape data with n = 3200.
- Main structure is 2D in the region  $[-3,3] \times [-3,3]$ .
- We added additional variables to make it high dimensions (d = 10, 100, 500, 1000).
- Additional noise level  $\sigma = 0.2, 0.3$ .
- We use adjusted rand index to evaluate performance.

#### Simulation: Yingyang ( $\sigma = 0.2$ )



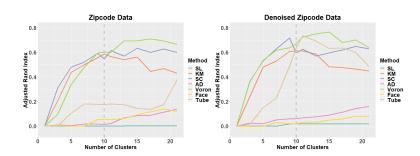
#### Simulation: Yingyang ( $\sigma = 0.3$ )



#### Real data: Zipcode data - 1

- n = 2000 with  $d = 16 \times 16$  images of handwritten Hindu-Arabic numerals from.
- o Numbers: 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9.
- While this data is often used for classification, we remove the class label and treat it as a clustering problem.
- We consider using the original data and the denoised data (removing observations with the lowest 10% density).

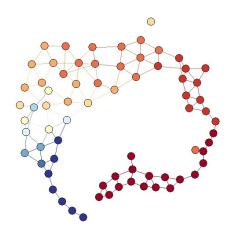
### Real data: Zipcode data - 2



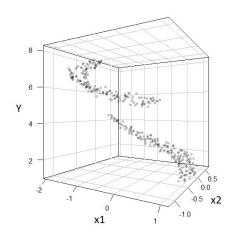
## Skeleton Regression: Introduction

- The idea of skeleton can be used in a regression setting.
- Intuition: we construct skeleton using the covariates/features and do prediction on the skeleton.

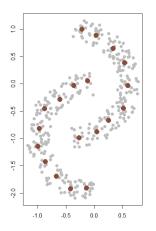
## Skeleton Regression: Application to Astronomy data



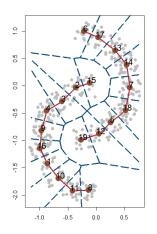
Detecting galaxy's redshift using color information (5D covariates).



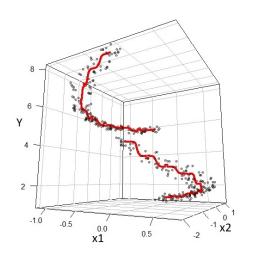
Raw data (2D covariate + 1D response).



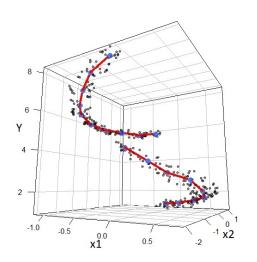
*k*-means: generating knots (centers of *k*-means clusters);  $k = \sqrt{n}$ .



Generating the skeleton.



Skeleton kernel regression.



Skeleton linear spline.

#### Skeleton Regression: Skeleton - 1

- o Data:  $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}$ .
- We construct skeletons using  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ .
- Centers of k-means:  $c_1, \dots, c_k$ .
- The skeleton clustering creates a weighted graph  $G_0 = (V, W)$ , where
  - $V = \{c_1, \cdots, c_k\}$
  - o  $W = \{w_{j\ell}\}$ , where  $w_{j\ell} = \widehat{S}_{j\ell}^{VD}$  is the Voronoi density.
- We choose a threshold  $\lambda$  to convert it into an unweighted graph G = (V, E), where  $e_{j\ell} \in E$  ( $j, \ell$  share an edge) if  $W_{j\ell} \ge \lambda$ .

#### Skeleton Regression: Skeleton - 2

• The graph G creates a skeleton  $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  such that

$$S = V \cup \mathscr{E}$$
,

where

$$\mathcal{E} = \{ tc_j + (1-t)c_\ell : t \in (0,1), e_{j\ell} \in E \}$$

denotes the edges.

- 8 is almost a 1D structure except for knots that may have multiple edges attaching to them.
- & can be decomposed into the vertex region V and the edge region &.
- We project each observation  $X_i$  to  $S_i \in \mathcal{S}$  and construct prediction models accordingly.

### Skeleton linear spline

- A simple nonparametric regression on skeleton is the linear spline.
- **Skeleton linear spline:** For each point  $s \in S$ , we require the prediction model m(s) that
  - 1. m(s) is linear when s is on an edge, and
  - 2. m(s) is continuous at each knot.
- While it may looks non-trivial to fit this model, there is a simple representer theorem for this.

#### Skeleton linear spline: representer theorem

- Define a regression model  $m_{\beta}$  such that
  - $m_{\beta}(V_i) = \beta_i$  for each vertex,
  - $om_{\beta}(s) = t(s)\beta_i + (1 t(s))\beta_{\ell} \text{ if } s = t(s)V_i + (1 t(s))V_{\ell}.$
- Namely, the model is a linear interpolation of the prediction values on each knot.
- The model  $m_{\beta}$  is determined by the coefficients  $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$  on the knots.

#### Theorem (Wei and Chen (2023))

Any skeleton linear spline model can be written as  $m_{\beta}$  for some  $\beta$ .

## Skeleton linear spline: fitting

- Fitting the skeleton linear spline is very easy.
- For every observation  $X_i$  with a projected location  $S_i \in \mathcal{S}$ , we further convert it into a vector  $Z_i \in [0,1]^k$  such that

$$Z_{ik} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } S_i = V_k \text{ is on the vertex} \\ t & \text{if } S_i = tV_k + (1-t)V_\ell \text{ for some } V_\ell \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- With this, the prediction value  $m_{\beta}(S_i) = Z_i^T \beta$ .
- Thus, when we estimate  $\beta$  using the least square, this becomes a linear regression problem with an analytic solution:

$$\widehat{\beta} = (ZZ^T)^{-1}ZY.$$

### Metric space induced by skeleton

- The set  $\delta$  is equipped with a metric  $d_{\delta}$  because
  - each vertex  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  has a location in Euclidean space and
  - each edge  $e_{j\ell}$  has a length  $||c_j c_\ell||$ .
- For two points  $s_1, s_2 \in \mathcal{S}$ , their distance  $d_{\mathcal{S}}(s_1, s_2)$  will be the shortest distance in  $\mathcal{S}$ . If they belong to two different connected component, we set  $d_{\mathcal{S}}(s_1, s_2) = \infty$ .
- The metric space  $(\delta, d_{\delta})$  allows us to use a wide variety of methods for prediction.

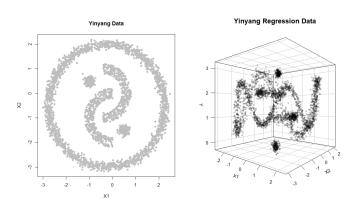
## Skeleton kernel regression

- As a classical example, we may use kernel regression on the skeleton.
- The prediction value  $\widehat{m}_h(s)$  is

$$\widehat{m}_h(s) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i K\left(\frac{d_{\mathcal{S}}(s,S_i)}{h}\right)}{\sum_{j=1}^n K\left(\frac{d_{\mathcal{S}}(s,S_j)}{h}\right)}.$$

o Other methods such as kNN is applicable as well.

## Skeleton Regression: simulations - 1



We add additional covariates to make it a high-dimensional data.

### Skeleton Regression: simulations - 2

Method	Medium SSE (5%, 95%)	nknots	Parameter
kNN	204.5 (192.3, 221.9)	-	neighbor=18
Ridge	$2127.0 \ (2100.2, \ 2155.2)$		$\lambda = 7.94$
Lasso	1556.8 (1515.4, 1607.9)		$\lambda = 0.0126$
SpecSeries	1506.4 (1469.1,1555.6)	-	bandwidth = 2
S-Kernel	112.8 (102.0, 121.7)	38	bandwidth = 6 $r_{hns}$
S-kNN	139.6 (129.6,148.7)	38	neighbor = 36
S-Lspline	95.8 (88.6, 102.6)	38	-

d = 1000. We use 10-fold cross-validation for every method.

#### Conclusion

- Skeleton approach offers a flexible framework.
- It shows promising results in both clustering and regression when the number of covariates is high.
- However, a couple of open questions remains:
  - Understanding the effect of *k*-means when *k* is large.
  - How does the randomness of *k*-means affects the final result.
  - Principled way to post-process the knots.
- Main references:
  - Skeleton clustering: arXiv 2104.10770
  - Skeleton regression: arXiv 2303.11786

# Thank You!

More details can be found in http://faculty.washington.edu/yenchic.