## FINDING COSMIC FILAMENT BY THE DIRECTIONAL RIDGE FINDING ALGORITHM

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- Supported by NSF DMS - 1810960 and DMS - 195278 and DMS - 2112907.

Joint work with Yikun Zhang


## Cosmic Web: What Does Our Universe Look Like



Credit: Millennium Simulation

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## The Importance of Filaments

- A galaxy's brightness, size, and mass are associated with the distance to filaments.



## The Importance of Filaments

- A galaxy's brightness, size, and mass are associated with the distance to filaments.
- A galaxy's alignment is associated with filaments.



## Density Ridges

We formalize the notion of filaments as density ridges.

## Example: Ridges in Mountains



Credit: Google

## Example: Ridges in Smooth Functions



## Example: Ridges in Smooth Functions



# Ridges: Local Modes in Subspace 



- A generalized local mode in a specific 'subspace'.


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## Formal Definition of Density Ridges

- $p: \mathbb{R}^{d} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, the density function.
- $\left(\lambda_{j}(x), v_{j}(x)\right): j$ th eigenvalue/vector of $H(x)=\nabla \nabla p(x)$.
- $V(x)=\left[v_{2}(x), \cdots, v_{d}(x)\right]$ : matrix of the 2nd eigenvector to the last eigenvector.
- $V(x) V(x)^{T}$ : a projection.
- Ridges:

$$
R=\operatorname{Ridge}(p)=\left\{x: V(x) V(x)^{T} \nabla p(x)=0, \lambda_{2}(x)<0\right\}
$$

- Local modes:

$$
\operatorname{Mode}(p)=\left\{x: \nabla p(x)=0, \lambda_{1}(x)<0\right\}
$$

## Dimension of Ridges

The dimension of a ridge is 1 .

This is because ridges are points satisfying $V(x) V(x)^{T} \nabla p(x)=0$.
$V(x) V(x)^{T}$ has rank $d-1$, so there are $d-1$ effective constraints.

By the Implicit Function Theorem, ridges have dimension 1.

## Estimator and Algorithm

We use the plug-in estimate:

$$
\widehat{R}_{n}=\operatorname{Ridge}\left(\widehat{p}_{n}\right),
$$

where $\widehat{p}_{n}(x)=\frac{1}{n h^{d}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} K\left(\frac{x-X_{i}}{h}\right)$ is the kernel density estimator (KDE) and $X_{1}, \cdots, X_{n}$ are the locations of galaxies.

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- In general, finding ridges from a given function is hard.
- The Subspace Constraint Mean Shift ${ }^{1}$ (SCMS) algorithm allows us to find $\widehat{R}_{n}$, ridges of the KDE.

[^1]
## SCMS: Ridge Recovery Algorithm



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SCMS moves blue mesh points by gradient ascent and a projection.

## Example for Estimated Density Ridges



## Example for Estimated Density Ridges



## Example for Estimated Density Ridges



## Example for Estimated Density Ridges



## 3D Example for Estimated Ridges



Blue curves: density ridges.
Red points: density local modes.

## Formal definition of the SCMS algorithm

- Starting at an initial point $x^{(0)}$, the SCMS algorithm generates a sequence of points $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \cdots$ via the following updating procedure:

$$
x^{(t+1)}=x^{(t)}+\eta \widehat{V}\left(x^{(t)}\right) \widehat{V}\left(x^{(t)}\right)^{T} \nabla \widehat{p}_{n}\left(x^{(t)}\right)
$$

for $t=0,1,2,3, \cdots$.

- The tuning parameter $\eta>0$ is the step size.


## Convergence of the SCMS algorithm

- Let $x^{(\infty)} \in \widehat{R}_{n}$ be its destination.


## Theorem (Linear convergence of SCMS)

Under suitable conditions and $\left\|x^{(0)}-x^{(\infty)}\right\|_{2} \leq r_{0}$, we have

$$
\left\|x^{(t)}-x^{(\infty)}\right\|_{2} \leq \Gamma^{t}\left\|x^{(0)}-x^{(\infty)}\right\|_{2}
$$

where $\Gamma \in(0,1)$.

- We provide an explicit description of $\Gamma, r_{0}$ in our paper.
- Technical challenge: the projection matrix $\widehat{V}\left(x^{(t)}\right) \widehat{V}\left(x^{(t)}\right)^{T}$ also depends on the current location $x^{(t)}$, so we have to bound this difference as well.


## Asymptotic Theory

To study the uncertainty of the ridge estimator, we use the Hausdorff distance to quantify the errors: $\operatorname{Haus}\left(\widehat{R}_{n}, R\right)$.
$\longrightarrow$ Hausdorff distance is like an $L_{\infty}$ distance for sets.
Key observation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Haus}\left(\widehat{R}_{n}, R\right) & \approx \sup \{\text { Empirical process on } R\} \\
& \approx \sup \{\text { Gaussian process on } R\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Theorem

Under regularity conditions and $\frac{\log n}{n h^{d+8}} \rightarrow 0$, there exists a Gaussian process $\mathbb{B}_{n}$ defined on a certain function space $\mathscr{F}$ such that

$$
\sup _{t}\left|\mathbb{P}\left(\sqrt{n h^{d+2}} \operatorname{Haus}\left(\widehat{R}_{n}, R\right)<t\right)-\mathbb{P}\left(\sup _{f \in \mathscr{F}}\left|\mathbb{B}_{n}(f)\right|<t\right)\right|=O\left(\left(\frac{\log ^{7} n}{n h^{d+2}}\right)^{1 / 8}\right)
$$

## Confidence Set: $\oplus$ operation

We define $A \oplus r=\{x: d(x, A) \leq r\}$.


Then we have the following inclusion property:

$$
A \subset B \oplus \operatorname{Haus}(A, B), \quad B \subset A \oplus \operatorname{Haus}(A, B)
$$

This also implies

$$
R \subset \widehat{R}_{n} \oplus \operatorname{Haus}\left(\widehat{R}_{n}, R\right)
$$

## Bootstrap Consistency

Let $\widehat{R}_{n}^{*}$ be the bootstrap ridges. We proved that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Haus}\left(\widehat{R}_{n}^{*}, \widehat{R}_{n}\right) & \approx \sup \left\{\text { Gaussian process on } \widehat{R}_{n}\right\} \\
& \approx \sup \{\text { Gaussian process on } R\} \\
& \approx \operatorname{Haus}\left(\widehat{R}_{n}, R\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Theorem

Under regularity conditions and $\frac{\log n}{n h^{d+8}} \rightarrow 0$,

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(R \subset \widehat{R}_{n} \oplus \widehat{t}_{1-\alpha}\right)=1-\alpha+O\left(\left(\frac{\log ^{7} n}{n h^{d+2}}\right)^{1 / 8}\right)
$$

where $\widehat{t}_{1-\alpha}=$ is the $1-\alpha$ quantile of $\operatorname{Haus}\left(\widehat{R}_{n}^{*}, \widehat{R}_{n}\right)$.

## Uncertainty of Ridges



## SDSS: Comparing to Clusters

- Blue: filaments. Red: galaxy clusters (redMaPPer).



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## SDSS: Comparing to Clusters

- Blue: filaments. Red: galaxy clusters (redMaPPer).



## SDSS: Filament Effects VS Environments

Do filaments have an extra effect other than environments?
$\longrightarrow$ Yes!


## SDSS: Color



Similar pattern also appears for other galaxy properties such as brightness, size, and age.

## Accounting for the spherical geometry

## Directional data

- While the above results seem to be good, it has a severe problem: our data (locations of galaxies) is not in Euclidean space.
- In particular, we use (RA, dec) to represent the location of a galaxy.
- (RA, dec) are spherical coordinate!
- The Euclidean ridge finding algorithm may lead to a severe bias.


## Failure of usual SCMS



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## Directional ridges - 1

- Let $X_{1}, \cdots, X_{n} \in \Omega_{q}$, where $\Omega_{q}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{q+1}:\|x\|_{2}=1\right\}$ be the directional data on $q$-dimensional sphere.
- To define ridges on $\Omega_{q}$, we need to use gradient on a Riemannian manifold.
- Luckily, in this case, we have a simple representation of the gradient on Riemannian manifold grad using the usual gradient operator $\nabla$ (in $(q+1)$-dimension):

$$
\operatorname{grad} f(x)=\left(I_{q+1}-x x^{T}\right) \nabla f(x)
$$

where $x \in \mathbb{R}^{q+1}$ and $I_{q+1}=\operatorname{diag}(1,1, \cdots, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^{(q+1) \times(q+1)}$.

- When $x \in \Omega_{q}$, this will lead to the gradient on a Riemannian manifold.


## Directional ridges - 2

- With the above representation, the Hessian on Riemannian manifold can be expressed as

$$
\mathscr{H} f(x)=\left(I_{q+1}-x x^{T}\right) \nabla \nabla f(x)\left(I_{q+1}-x x^{T}\right)
$$

when $x \in \Omega_{q}$.

- The directional ridges are then defined as

$$
\underline{R}=\operatorname{Ridge}(p)=\left\{x: \underline{V}(x) \underline{V}(x)^{T} \nabla p(x)=0, \underline{\lambda}_{2}(x)<0\right\},
$$

where $\underline{V}(x)$ is the matrix of the smallest ( $q-1$ ) eigenvectors and $\underline{\lambda}_{2}(x)$ is the second largest eigenvalue of $\mathscr{H} p(x)$.

## Directional ridges - 3

- In practice, we estimate $p$ by the directional KDE:

$$
\widehat{p}_{\operatorname{dir}}(x)=\frac{c_{L, q}(h)}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(\frac{1-x^{T} X_{i}}{h^{2}}\right),
$$

where $c_{L, q}(h)=O\left(h^{-q}\right)$ is the normalizing constant and $L$ is the directional kernel.

- A popular choice is the von-Mises kernel, i.e., $L(r)=e^{-r}$.
- This leads to $\widehat{\mathscr{H} f}(x)$ and $\underline{\widehat{V}}(x)$ and $\underline{\hat{\lambda}}_{2}(x)$ and $\underline{\widehat{R}}$.


## Directional SCMS

- The SCMS algorithm can be generalized to a directional SCMS with some modifications.
- We showed that the directional SCMS can be expressed as the following fixed-point iteration (starting at $x^{(0)}$ ):

$$
x^{(t+1)}=\frac{\underline{\widehat{V}}\left(x^{(t)}\right) \underline{\widehat{V}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)^{T} \nabla \widehat{p}_{\operatorname{dir}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)+\left\|\nabla \widehat{p}_{\operatorname{dir}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)\right\|_{2} \cdot x^{(t)}}{\left\|\underline{\widehat{V}}\left(x^{(t)}\right) \underline{\widehat{V}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)^{T} \nabla \widehat{p}_{\operatorname{dir}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)+\right\| \nabla \widehat{p}_{\operatorname{dir}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)\left\|_{2} \cdot x^{(t)}\right\|_{2}},
$$

for $t=0,1,2,3, \cdots$.

## Convergence of the directional SCMS algorithm

- Let $x^{(0)}$ be an initial point of the SCMS on $\Omega_{q}$ and let $x^{(\infty)} \in \underline{\widehat{R}}$ be its destination.


## Theorem (Linear convergence of directional SCMS)

Under suitable conditions and $\left\|x^{(t)}-x^{(\infty)}\right\|_{2} \leq r_{\text {dir }}$, we have

$$
\left\|x^{(t)}-x^{(\infty)}\right\|_{2} \leq \Gamma_{\text {dir }}^{t}\left\|x^{(0)}-x^{(\infty)}\right\|_{2}
$$

where $\Gamma_{\text {dir }} \in(0,1)$.

- We provide bounds on $\Gamma_{\text {dir }}$ and $r_{\text {dir }}$ in the paper.


## Applying to the SDSS data

Directional SCMS with $\mathrm{h}=0.032722047245190816$,
$0.095<=z<0.1$, and RA centered at 185 degree


## Applying to the SDSS data

Directional SCMS with $\mathrm{h}=0.04820183700959344$,
$0.3<=z<0.305$, and RA centered at 185 degree


## Applying to the SDSS data

Directional SCMS with $\mathrm{h}=0.03799852656312165$,
$0.49<=z<0.495$, and RA centered at 185 degree


## Incorporating the redshift

## Incorporating the redshift information

- All the above approach is based on the idea of 'slicing the Universe'.
- Namely, we take slices based on redshift and find filaments in each slice.
- How to incorporate the information from redshift is a key problem.


## Failure of a naive idea

- Naively, one may think that we can convert (RA, dec, z) into 3-dimensional Cartesian coordinate and apply the 3D ridge finding algorithm.
- This idea may lead to unstable results. See the following simulation:



## $\Omega_{2} \times \mathbb{R}$ space

- To incorporate the redshift, we consider the product space $\Omega_{2} \times \mathbb{R}$.
- $\Omega_{2}$ is the 2-sphere, which describes the angular position (RA, dec).
- $\mathbb{R}$ is the 1-dimensional Euclidean space, which describes the redshift z .
- We attempt to find ridges in $\Omega_{2} \times \mathbb{R}$.


## Filament findings in $\Omega_{2} \times \mathbb{R}$



- The right panel is the result from our directional-linear SCMS, which recover the true filament (red curve).


## Density estimation in $\Omega_{2} \times \mathbb{R}$

- The idea is to estimate the density in the product space directly.
- Let $x \in \Omega_{2}$ denotes the angular coordinate and $z \in \mathbb{R}$ denotes the redshift.
- Our data will be $\left(X_{1}, Z_{1}\right), \cdots,\left(X_{n}, Z_{n}\right) \in \Omega_{2} \times \mathbb{R}$.
- We estimate the density using the product kernel:

$$
\widehat{p}_{\mathrm{DL}}(x, z)=\frac{c_{L, 2}\left(h_{x}\right)}{n h_{z}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(\frac{1-x^{T} X_{i}}{h_{x}^{2}}\right) K\left(\frac{Z_{i}-z}{h_{z}}\right),
$$

where $L(y)=e^{-y}$ and $K(y)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} y^{2}\right)$ are a directional and Gaussian kernel.

## Idea: Mean-Shift in $\Omega_{2} \times \mathbb{R}$

- We show that a gradient ascent of $\hat{p}_{\mathrm{DL}}(x, z)$ with a suitable step size can be written as follows.
- Starting at $x^{(t)}, z^{(t)}$, we compute

$$
\widetilde{x}^{(t+1)}=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} L\left(\frac{1-x^{(t) T} X_{i}}{h_{x}^{2}}\right) K\left(\frac{Z_{i}-z^{(t)}}{h_{z}}\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(\frac{1-x^{(t) T} X_{i}}{h_{x}^{2}}\right) K\left(\frac{Z_{i}-z^{(t)}}{h_{z}}\right)},
$$

and update

$$
x^{(t+1)}=\frac{\widetilde{x}^{(t+1)}}{\left\|\widetilde{x}^{(t+1)}\right\|} .
$$

Also, the location $z^{(t)}$ is updated to

$$
z^{(t+1)}=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_{i} L\left(\frac{1-x^{(t+1) T} X_{i}}{h_{x}^{2}}\right) K\left(\frac{Z_{i}-z^{(t)}}{h_{z}}\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(\frac{1-x^{(t) T} X_{i}}{h_{x}^{2}}\right) K\left(\frac{Z_{i}-z^{(t)}}{h_{z}}\right)} .
$$

## Directional-Euclidean SCMS on SDSS

Cosmic Filament Detection via Directional-Linear SCMS Algorithm
on the 3D (RA,DEC,Redshift) space with $0.05 \leqslant z<0.07$

- Detected Filaments


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Subsompled galaxies


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- Detected Filaments Subsampled galaxies



## Conclusion and future direction

- We have generalized the usual ridge finding problem into directional x Euclidean data, which is better suited for Astronomy data.
- We proved both statistical and computational learning theory of our algorithm.
- Currently, we are applying this to the whole SDSS data and analyzing how filaments affect nearby galaxies.
- We are also designing a weighted approach that each galaxy is weighted differently (e.g., by its stellar mass).


## Thank You!

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

## References

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## Directional SCMS



$$
x^{(t+1)}=\frac{\underline{\widehat{V}}\left(x^{(t)}\right) \underline{\widehat{V}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)^{T} \nabla \widehat{p}_{\operatorname{dir}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)+\left\|\nabla \widehat{p}_{\operatorname{dir}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)\right\|_{2} \cdot x^{(t)}}{\left\|\underline{\widehat{V}}\left(x^{(t)}\right) \underline{\widehat{V}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)^{T} \nabla \widehat{p}_{\operatorname{dir}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)+\right\| \nabla \widehat{p}_{\operatorname{dir}}\left(x^{(t)}\right)\left\|_{2} \cdot x^{(t)}\right\|_{2}},
$$

Note: $\widehat{p}_{\text {dir }}=\widehat{f}_{h}$.

## Comparison: Euclidean ridges vs directional ridges



We apply both Euclidean and directional ridge finding algorithms and study the errors of Euclidean ridges as a function of latitude.

## Linear convergence: high-level idea



The projection matrix makes the algorithm not a conventional gradient ascent.

A key step to the proof is to bound the projection $\left(I_{q+1}-V_{d}\left(x^{(t)}\right) V_{d}\left(x^{(t)}\right)^{T}\right)\left(x^{(t)}-x^{*}\right)$ to be $O\left(\left\|x^{(t)}-x^{*}\right\|^{2}\right)$.

We use this decomposition to achieve that.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Ozertem, Umut, and Deniz Erdogmus. "Locally defined principal curves and surfaces." JMLR (2011).

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