# **Supplemental Material ShaRP: Shape-Regularized Multidimensional Projections**

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#### Abstract

Projections, or dimensionality reduction methods, are techniques of choice for the visual exploration of high-dimensional data. Many such techniques exist, each one of them having a distinct visual signature — i.e. a recognizable way to arrange points in the resulting scatterplot. Such signatures are implicit consequences of algorithm design, such as whether the method focuses on local vs. global data pattern preservation; optimization techniques; and hyperparameter settings. In this work, we present a novel projection technique — ShaRP — that instead provides users explicit control over the visual signature of the created scatterplot, which can cater better to interactive visualization scenarios. ShaRP scales well with dimensionality and dataset size, generically handles any quantitative dataset, and provides this extended functionality of controlling projection shapes at a small, user-controllable cost in terms of quality metrics.

## **CONTENTS**



# **A COMPARISON ACROSS ALL STUDIED PROJECTION TECHNIQUES**

[Fig.](#page-1-1) 1 shows a comprehensive comparison of results obtained by ShaRP (rightmost part of the image) and other techniques against which we compare. The AG, KM, and GT variants correspond to (pseudo)labels obtained by Agglome



<span id="page-1-1"></span><span id="page-1-0"></span>Figure 1: Comparison between all possible pairs of algorithm and dataset among those studied in this work.

#### <span id="page-2-0"></span>**B FURTHER CLUSTER SHAPING**

In our work, we show ShaRP's ability to reshape clusters into rectangles/squares and triangles. Here, we show this feature over more datasets and with varying hyperaparameters.

#### <span id="page-2-1"></span>**Exploring squarified cluster generation**

We are able to produce shapes that conform to squarified/rectangular shapes by employing a generalized Normal distribution in our sampling scheme. We show in [Fig. 2](#page-2-2) the results of varying the shape hyperparameter  $\omega$  over different datasets.

<span id="page-2-2"></span>

Figure 2: Demonstration of shape regularization towards rectangles for different values of  $\omega$  across all datasets.

## **Exploring triangular cluster generation**

We first define an equilateral triangle in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  by arranging its vertices  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$  in a matrix as

$$
\mathbf{T} = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \mathbf{v}_3] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1 \\ 0 & \sqrt{3}/2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$

The base shape is a source of bias, so we choose a base triangle that is symmetric around its center, i.e. equilateral. This initial bias can be overcome through the training process via a necessary extension we add to the sampling scheme.

Any convex combination of  $v_1, v_2$ , and  $v_3$  gives a point in the interior of this triangle – this is what using barycentric coordinates means. If we have a vector  $\mathbf{w} = [w_1 w_2 w_3]^T$  where  $w_i \in [0, 1]$ ,  $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^{3} w_i = 1$ , we obtain an interior point  $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  by  $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{Tw}$ .

Thus, we need to use a sampling distribution in ShaRP that generates vectors with the same properties as w above. The Dirichlet probability distribution

$$
\mathbf{w} \sim \mathrm{Dir}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3) \Rightarrow \mathbf{w} \in [0, 1]^3, \quad \sum_{i=1}^3 w_i = 1 \quad (\alpha_i > 0, \ \forall i)
$$

does exactly that. We choose as prior the "uniform" distribution on the triangle, which corresponds to  $Dir(1,1,1)$ .

If we stopped here, our algorithm would fail to learn a useful embedding since every data point will draw samples from a single triangle, *i.e.*, the encoding layer will map all points to the same region in 2D space. Hence, we augment our sampling scheme to allow triangles to be rotated, scaled, and translated.

The set of learned parameters used to force shapes into triangles is then  $\theta = (\phi \in [-\pi, \pi], s_x \in \mathbb{R}_+, s_y \in \mathbb{R}_+, t_x \in \mathbb{R}, t_y \in \mathbb{R}, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)$ . Here,  $\phi$  is a rotation angle;  $s_x$  and  $s_y$  are scaling factors in the x and y directions; t<sub>x</sub> and t<sub>y</sub> are translation amounts in the x and y directions; and  $\alpha_i$  are the sampling distribution parameters. A forward pass through this layer is then given by

$$
\mathbf{w} \sim \text{Dir}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)
$$
  

$$
\mathbf{p} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 \\ 0 & s_y \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{Tw} + \begin{bmatrix} t_x \\ t_y \end{bmatrix}
$$

As a result, we get clusters that are shaped like triangles. This parameterization is capable of generating every possible triangle in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and is more convenient than learning triangle vertices directly. We can even add individual regularization losses depending on the parameter's semantics. For example, we choose *not* to add regularization to  $\phi$ , to allow it to freely range over its domain; we regularize  $s_x$ ,  $s_y$  towards 1 and  $t_x, t_y$  towards 0.

We show in [Fig. 3](#page-3-0) the effect this has on different datasets, as well as what happens when we remove a degree of freedom from the sampling scheme, namely freezing the *tx*,*ty* translation amounts at 0.

<span id="page-3-0"></span>

Figure 3: Triangle-oriented shape regularization demonstrated for all datasets studied. We present all three variants of ShaRP and also explore the impact of (dis)allowing the trainslation of triangles in space.

#### <span id="page-4-0"></span>**C DETAILED PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENTS**

ShaRP is one of the fastest techniques among the ones we compare it to. We show here the performance of learning a projection function (when the algorithm requires it) and then projecting the data points. These two steps are performed over an increasing number of samples, and we can see how the run time of different algorithms increases. t-SNE notably grows faster than all other techniques studied, while ShaRP presents run time growth linear in the number of training examples.



Figure 4: Run time measurements of fit\_transform calls for different algorithms across all studied datasets.

# <span id="page-5-0"></span>**D DETAILED PROJECTION QUALITY METRICS**

For completeness and ease of scrutiny, we provide the non-aggregated quality metrics the main paper's Tables 2 and 3. These are shown respectively in [Table 1](#page-5-1) and [Table 2.](#page-6-0) ShaRP is also able to perform inverse projection since it uses an Auto-Encoder. We report here the Mean Squared Error between an input and its reconstruction as a quality measure of the inverse projection both over data (Train MSE) used for training and unseen data (Test MSE).

Table 1: Non-aggregated quality metrics for all combinations of technique and dataset used in our work.

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<span id="page-6-0"></span>

Dataset	Shape	Trustworthiness	Continuity	Shepard Correlation	Stress	Neighborhood Hit	<b>Distance</b> Consistency	Train MSE
FashionMNIST		0.835	0.907	0.463	0.880	0.829	0.766	0.048
	$\Box[\omega = 15]$	0.829	0.916	0.495	0.891	0.813	0.771	0.049
	$\Box[\omega=5]$	0.825	0.915	0.485	0.892	0.842	0.816	0.050
		0.826	0.898	0.482	0.875	0.895	0.781	0.050
	$\triangle^\dagger$	0.807	0.808	0.208	0.866	0.834	0.641	0.053
HAR		0.823	0.810	0.521	0.749	0.965	0.829	0.010
	$\Box[\omega = 15]$	0.829	0.886	0.513	0.768	0.928	0.909	0.010
	$\Box[\omega=5]$	0.825	0.880	0.582	0.749	0.952	0.936	0.010
	Λ	0.828	0.854	0.563	0.662	0.978	0.921	0.010
	Δ†	0.830	0.824	0.426	0.717	0.980	0.928	0.010
<b>MNIST</b>		0.732	0.897	0.251	0.859	0.977	0.962	0.055
	$\Box[\omega = 15]$	0.735	0.900	0.230	0.864	0.968	0.948	0.055
	$\Box[\omega=5]$	0.735	0.896	0.271	0.878	0.979	0.961	0.055
	Δ	0.747	0.874	0.119	0.850	0.986	0.896	0.054
	$\triangle^{\dagger}$	0.738	0.799	0.148	0.844	0.959	0.769	0.056
Reuters		0.554	0.701	0.104	0.676	0.962	0.851	0.001
	$\bar{\Box}[\omega = 15]$	0.558	0.715	0.256	0.760	0.977	0.953	0.001
	$\Box[\omega=5]$	0.556	0.699	0.300	0.714	0.975	0.933	0.001
	Λ	0.560	0.696	0.265	0.581	0.981	0.953	0.001
	Δt	0.561	0.637	0.002	0.665	0.977	0.793	0.001
<b>USPS</b>		0.802	0.922	0.285	0.774	0.973	0.931	0.044
	$\Box[\omega = 15]$	0.798	0.919	0.329	0.792	0.962	0.934	0.045
	$\square[\omega=5]$	0.799	0.918	0.350	0.793	0.975	0.948	0.045
	Δ	0.823	0.898	0.363	0.775	0.992	0.887	0.043
	$\triangle^\dagger$	0.804	0.826	0.185	0.763	0.972	0.837	0.045

Table 2: Non-aggregated quality metrics for different sampling schemes within ShaRP.



 $\Box[\omega = k]$  squares, generalized Normal sampling with  $\omega = k$ 

 $\triangle$  triangles, Dirichlet sampling

triangles, Dirichlet sampling with  $t_x = t_y = 0$ 

# <span id="page-7-0"></span>**E QUALITY METRIC DEFINITIONS**

We provide the formal definition of each quality metric used in our work in [Table 3.](#page-7-1) For this, we use the following notation:  $NN_i^{(K)}$  is the set of K-nearest neighbors of  $\mathbf{x}_i$  in the high-dimensional space;  $\widehat{NN}_i^{(K)}$  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i$  is the set of K-nearest neighbors of  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i = P(\mathbf{x}_i)$  in the low-dimensional space. We also use these as functions, omitting the data point index:  $NN_i^{(K)} = NN^{(K)}(\mathbf{x}_i)$ . We denote by  $r(i, j)$  (resp.  $\hat{r}(i, j)$ ) the rank of the  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (resp.  $\mathbb{R}^q$ ) point  $\mathbf{x}_j$  (resp.  $P(\mathbf{x}_j)$ ) in the ordered function that outputs a given data point's label (where here *K* means the number of classes) and  $c: \{1, ..., K\} \to \mathbb{R}^n$  as the function that returns the centroid of a given class. We also employ indicator function notation  $\|\cdot\|$ , that returns 1 when the condition inside it is true, and 0 otherwise.

Table 3: Quality metric definitions. The best value for each metric is bold under the Range column.

<span id="page-7-1"></span>

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