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Fréchet mean and p-mean on the unit circle: decidability, algorithm, and applications to clustering on the flat torus

F. Cazals*and B. Delmas†and T. O'Donnell‡

March 26, 2021

Abstract

The center of mass of a point set lying on a manifold generalizes the celebrated Euclidean centroid, and is ubiquitous in statistical analysis in non Euclidean spaces. In this work, we give a complete characterization of the weighted p-mean of a finite set of angular values on S^1 , based on a decomposition of S^1 such that the functional of interest has at most one local minimum per cell. This characterization is used to show that the problem is decidable for rational angular values –a consequence of Lindemann's theorem on the transcendence of π , and to develop an effective algorithm parameterized by exact predicates. A robust implementation of this algorithm based on multi-precision interval arithmetic is also presented, and is shown to be effective for large values of n and p. We use it as building block to implement the k-means and k-means++ clustering algorithms on the flat torus, with applications to clustering protein molecular conformations. These algorithms are available in the Structural Bioinformatics Library (http://sbl.inria.fr).

Our derivations are of interest in two respects. First, efficient p-mean calculations are relevant to develop principal components analysis on the flat torus encoding angular spaces—a particularly important case to describe molecular conformations. Second, our two-stage strategy stresses the interest of combinatorial methods for p-means, also emphasizing the role of numerical issues.

Keywords: Frechét mean, p-mean, data centering, principal component analysis, kmeans clustering, circular statistics, decidability, robustness, multi-precision, angular spaces, molecular conformations

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1 Introduction

1.1 Statistics on manifolds and p-means on S^1

Fréchet mean and generalizations. The celebrated center of mass of a point set P in a Euclidean space is the (a) point minimizing the sum of squared Euclidean distances to points in P. The center of mass plays a key role in data analysis at large, and in particular in principal components analysis since the data are centered prior to computing the covariance matrix and the principal directions. Generalizing these notions to non Euclidean spaces is an active area of research. Motivated by applications in structural biology (molecular conformations), robotics (robot conformations), and medicine (shape and relative positions of organs), early work focused on direct generalizations of Euclidean notions. Analysis tailored to the unit circle and sphere were developed under the umbrella of directional statistics [AJ91, MT93, MJ09]. In a more abstract setting, generalizations of the center of mass in general metric spaces were first worked out – the so-called Fréchet mean [Fré48], followed by a generalization to distributions on such spaces – the so-called Karcher mean [GK73, AM14, Pen18].

In fact, previous works span two complementary directions. On the one hand, efforts have focused on mathematical properties of spaces generalizing affine spaces, so as to provide statistical summaries of ensembles in terms of geometric objects of small dimension. On the other hand, algorithmic developments have been performed proposed to compute such objects. The case of the unit circle S^1 provides the simplest compact non Euclidean manifold to be analyzed. Despite its simplicity, this case turns out to be of high interest since S^1 encodes angles, a particularly important case e.g. to describe molecular conformations. In the following, we focus on p-means defined on the unit circle S^1 , for p > 1. (The case p = 1 requires trivial adaptations.)

Consider n angles $\Theta_0 = \{\theta_i\}_{i=1,\dots,n}$. Practically, since real data are known with finite precision, we treat angles as rational numbers. Consider the embedding of an angle onto the unit circle, that is $X(\theta) = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)^{\mathsf{T}}$. The geodesic distance between two points $X(\theta)$ and $X(\theta_i)$ on S^1 , denoted $d(\cdot, \cdot)$, satisfies

$$d(X(\theta), X(\theta_i)) = \min(|\theta - \theta_i|, 2\pi - |\theta - \theta_i|) = 2\arcsin\frac{\|X(\theta) - X(\theta_i)\|}{2}.$$
 (1)

Consider a set of positive weights $\{w_i\}_{i=1,\dots,n}$. For an integer $p \geq 1$, consider the function involving the weighted distances to all points, i.e.

$$F_p(\theta) = \sum_{i=1,\dots,n} w_i f_i(\theta), \text{ with } f_i(\theta) = d^p(X(\theta), X(\theta_i)).$$
(2)

We denote its minimum

$$\theta^* = \arg\min_{\theta \in [0,2\pi)} F_p(\theta). \tag{3}$$

For units weights and p=2, the value obtained is the Fréchet mean. In that case, the candidate minimizers (local minima of Eq. 2) form the vertices of a regular polygon [HsH15]. The previous expression can also be seen as a distance to a point mass probability distribution on S^1 . For a general probability distribution on S^1 , necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of a Fréchet mean have been worked out [Cha13]. In the same paper, the authors propose a quadratic algorithm–regardless of numerical issues—to compute the Fréchet mean for the particular case of a point mass probability distribution. In a more general setting, a stochastic algorithm finding p-means wrt a general measure on the circle has also been proposed [AM16].

Remark 1. In the subsequent sections, the weights in Eq. 2 are omitted – rational weights do not change our analysis. Our implementation, however, does use them.

Robustness and numerical issues. From a mathematical standpoint, computing the p-mean is a non-convex optimization problem, and one may assume that calculations are carried out in the standard real RAM computer model, which assumes that exact operations on real numbers are available at constant time per

operation [PS85]. From a practical standpoint though, numbers in real computers are represented with finite precision [MBdD⁺18]. The ensuing rounding errors are such that algorithms written in the real RAM model may loop, crash, or terminate with an erroneous answer, even for the simplest 2D geometric calculations [KMP⁺08].

Robust geometric algorithms, which deliver what they are designed for, can be developed using the Exact Geometric Computation (EGC) paradigm [YD95], which is central in the Computational Geometry Algorithms Library (CGAL) [cga]. The EGC relies on so-called exact predicates and constructions. A predicate is a function whose output belongs to a finite set, while a construction exhibits a new geometric object from the input data. For example, the predicate Sign(x) returns the sign $\{negative, null, positive\}$ of the arithmetic expression x. As we shall see, designing robust predicates for p-means on S^1 is connected to transcendental number theory since expressions involving π are dealt with. In particular, one needs to evaluate the sign of such expressions, which raises decidability issues [CCK⁺06].

Combinatorial complexity issues. The computation of the p-means also raises a combinatorial complexity issue. Function F_p being a sum over n terms, k function evaluations yield a complexity O(kn), which is quadratic if there is a linear number of local minima. Therefore, the fact that using candidate minimizers form a regular polygon [HsH15] does not directly yield a linear time algorithm even if the angles are sorted. As we shall see, the piecewise maintenance of the expression of the function does so, though. For the sake of conciseness, combinatorial complexity is plainly referred to as complexity in the sequel.

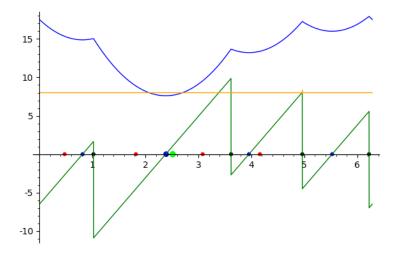


Figure 1: **Fréchet mean of four points on** S^1 (**Functions**) blue: function F_2 ; green: derivative F_2' ; orange: second derivative F_2'' (**Points**) red bullets: data points; black bullets: antipodal points; blue bullets: local minima of the function; large blue bullet: Fréchet mean θ^* ; green bullet: circular mean Eq. 14.

1.2 Contributions

This paper makes three contributions regarding p-means of a finite point set. First, we show that the function F_p is determined by a very simple combinatorial structure, namely a partition of S^1 into circle arcs. Second, we give an explicit expression for F_p , deduce that the problem is decidable, and present an algorithm computing p-means. Third, we present an effective and robust implementation, based on multi-precision interval arithmetic.

2 p-mean of a finite point set on S^1 : characterization

2.1 Notations

In the following, angles are in $[0, 2\pi)$. We first define:

Definition. 1. For each angle $\theta_i \in [0, \pi)$, we define $\theta_i^+ = \theta_i + \pi$. The set of all such angles is denoted $\Theta^+ = \{\theta_i^+\}$. For each angle $\theta_i \in [\pi, 2\pi)$, we define $\theta_i^- = \theta_i - \pi$. The set of all such angles is denoted $\Theta^- = \{\theta_i^-\}$. The antipodal set of Θ_0 is the set of angles $\Theta^{\pm} = \Theta^+ \cup \Theta^-$.

Altogether, these angles yield the larger set

$$\Theta = \Theta_0 \cup \Theta^{\pm}. \tag{4}$$

The 2n angles in Θ are generically denoted α_i or α_j . Note however that when referring to an angle in the continuous interval $[0, 2\pi)$, θ is used.

To each angle θ_i , we associate three so-called *elementary intervals* (Fig. 2):

- $\theta_i \in [0, \pi) : I_{i,1} = (0, \theta_i), I_{i,2} = (\theta_i, \theta_i^+), I_{i,3} = (\theta_i^+, 2\pi).$
- $\theta_i \in [\pi, 2\pi) : I_{i,1} = (0, \theta_i^-), I_{i,2} = (\theta_i^-, \theta_i), I_{i,3} = (\theta_i, 2\pi).$

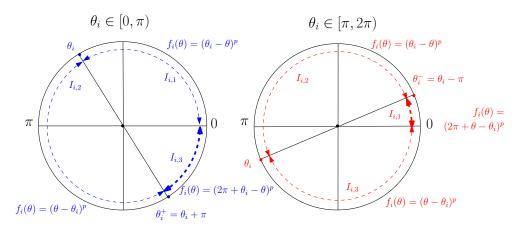


Figure 2: The partition of S^1 into circle arcs, and the piecewise functions defining F_p . The three elementary intervals defined by angles in $[0, \pi)$ and $[\pi, 2\pi)$ respectively. Bold circle arcs indicate that f_i has a transcendental expression i.e. involves π .

2.2 Partition of S^1

We also consider the partition of $[0, 2\pi)$ induced by the intersection of the 3n intervals $\{I_{i,1}, I_{i,2}, I_{i,3}\}$ (Fig. 2). More specifically, we choose one interval (out of three) for each function f_i , and intersect them all:

Definition. 2. The elementary intervals $I_{i,j}$ define a partition of S^1 based on the following intervals:

$$\mathcal{I} = \{ \bigcap_{i=1,\dots,n} (I_{i,1} \vee I_{i,2} \vee I_{i,3}) \text{ with } \bigcap_{i=1,\dots,n} I_{i,\cdot} \neq \emptyset \}.$$
 (5)

In the following, open intervals from \mathcal{I} are denoted (α_i, α_{i+1}) .

Remark 2. From the previous definition, it appears that the intervals in \mathcal{I} may be ascribed to nine types since the left endpoint is an angle θ_i or an antipodal angle θ_i^+ or θ_i^- , and likewise for the right endpoint.

2.3 Piecewise expression for F_p

We use the previous intervals to describe the piecewise structure of F_p . We define the following piecewise functions (Fig 2):

$$\theta_i \in [0, \pi) : f_i(\theta) = \begin{cases} (\theta_i - \theta)^p, & \text{for } \theta \in I_{i,1}, \\ (\theta - \theta_i)^p, & \text{for } \theta \in I_{i,2}, \\ (2\pi + \theta_i - \theta)^p, & \text{for } \theta \in I_{i,3}. \end{cases}$$

$$(6)$$

$$\theta_i \in [\pi, 2\pi) : f_i(\theta) = \begin{cases} (2\pi + \theta - \theta_i)^p, & \text{for } \theta \in I_{i,1}, \\ (\theta_i - \theta)^p, & \text{for } \theta \in I_{i,2}, \\ (\theta - \theta_i)^p, & \text{for } \theta \in I_{i,3}. \end{cases}$$

$$(7)$$

The previous equations give the piecewise expression of $F_p(\theta)$ (Eq. 2), from which one derives the following, which characterizes the derivative at points in $\alpha_i \in \Theta$:

$$\Delta f'_{i|\theta} = \lim_{\theta \searrow \alpha_i} f'_i(\theta) - \lim_{\theta \nearrow \alpha_i} f'_i(\theta) \tag{8}$$

Remark 3. Let θ_{max} be the antipodal value of the largest $\theta_i \in \Theta_0$ larger than π , and θ_{min} the antipode of the smallest $\theta_i \in \Theta_0$ smaller than π . The function F_p is transcendental in $[0, \theta_{max})$ and $(\theta_{min}, 2\pi]$ – its expression involves π . Also, the function F_p is algebraic on $(\theta_{max}, \theta_{min})$. See Fig. 2.

Using Eq. 8, the following is immediate:

Lemma. 1. For p > 1, the function f_i and its derivatives satisfy:

- The function f_i is continuous on S^1 .
- The derivative f'_i is continuous on S^1 except at the antipodal value of θ_i , where $\Delta f'_{i|antipode(\theta_i)} = -2p \pi^{p-1}$.
- The second order derivative f''_i is non negative on S^1 .

The previous lemma tells us that F'_p incurs drops at antipodal points, and then keeps increasing again on the interval starting at that point. Finding local minima of F_p therefore requires finding those intervals from \mathcal{I} where F'_p vanishes, which happens at most once:

Lemma. 2. For p > 1, the function F_p has at most one local min. on each interval in \mathcal{I} .

3 Algorithm

The observations above are not sufficient to obtain an efficient algorithm: since there are 2n intervals and since the function has linear complexity on each of them, a linear number of function evaluations has quadratic complexity. We get around this difficulty by maintaining the expression of the function at angles in Θ .

3.1 Analytical expressions and nullity of F_p'

The function F_p and its derivative. We first derive a compact, analytical expression of F_p and F'_p . Following Eqs. 6 and 7, the expressions of $f_i(\theta)$ and $f'_i(\theta)$ can be written as

$$f_i'(\theta) = k_i \times (a_i + \varepsilon_i \theta)^{p-1}, \text{ with } k_i \in \{-p, p\}, a_i \in \{-\theta_i, 2\pi - \theta_i, \theta_i, 2\pi + \theta_i\}, \varepsilon_i \in \{-1, +1\}.$$
 (9)

On open intervals (α_j, α_{j+1}) , the function reads as the following polynomial

$$F_p(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i + \varepsilon_i \theta)^p = \sum_{j=0}^p b_j \theta^j, \text{ with } b_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{p}{j} a_i^{p-j} \varepsilon_i^j.$$
 (10)

Similarly, the derivative $F'_n(\theta)$ reads as a degree p-1 polynomial:

$$F_{p}'(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i} (a_{i} + \varepsilon_{i} \theta)^{p-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} c_{j} \theta^{j}, \text{ with } c_{j} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i} {p-1 \choose j} a_{i}^{p-1-j} \varepsilon_{i}^{j}.$$
(11)

In the following, we assume that the coefficients of F_p and F'_p are stored in two vectors B and C of size p+1 and p respectively, so that evaluating the function or its derivative at a given θ has cost O(p).

Nullity of F_p' : algebraic versus transcendental expressions. The previous equations call for two important comments. First, from the combinatorial complexity standpoint, if the coefficients of the polynomials are known, evaluating F_p and F_p' has cost O(p). Second, from the numerical standpoint, locating local minima of F_p requires finding intervals from \mathcal{I} on which F_p' vanishes. Identifying such intervals is key to the robustness of our algorithm. Practically, since an interval is defined by two consecutive values in the set Θ , we need to check that the sign of F_p' differs at these endpoints. The cornerstone is therefore to decide the sign of F_p' at angles in Θ (input angles or their antipodes), and the following is a simple consequence of Lindemann's theorem on the transcendence of π :

Lemma. 3. If the angular values $\theta_i \in \Theta_0$ are rational numbers, checking whether $F_p'(\alpha_i) \neq 0$ for any $\alpha_i \in \Theta$ is decidable. Moreover, when F_p' has a transcendental expression and α_i is rational, $F_p' \neq 0$.

Proof. We first consider the case $\alpha_i \in \Theta_0$, and distinguish the two types of intervals – see Remark 3. First, consider an interval where F_p has an algebraic expression. We face a purely algebraic problem, and deciding whether $F_p'(\alpha_i) \neq 0$ can be done using classical bounds, e.g. Mahler bounds [LPY05, YYD+10]. Second, consider an interval where F_p has a transcendental expression. Then, $F_p'(\alpha_i)$ can be rewritten as a polynomial of degree p-1 in π . Lindemann's theorem on the transcendence of π implies that $F_p'(\alpha_i) \neq 0$.

Consider now the case where $\alpha_i \in \Theta^{\pm}$, that is $\alpha_i = \alpha_j \pm \pi$. Each individual term $f_i'(\alpha_i)$ also has the form $(c_i\pi + q_i)^{p-1}$, with $c_i \in \mathbb{N}$ and $q_i \in \mathbb{Q}$, so that the latter case also applies.

3.2 Algorithm

Upon creating and sorting the set Θ , which has complexity $O(n \log n)$, the algorithm involves four steps for each interval in \mathcal{I} .

Identify the intervals where F_p' vanishes. By lemmas 1 and 2, there is at most one local minimum per interval, which requires checking the signs of F_p' to the right and left bounds of an interval (α_j, α_{j+1}) . Using the functional forms encoded in vector C, computing these derivatives has the same complexity as the previous step. However, this step calls for two important comments:

- For $\alpha_i \in \Theta$, checking whether $F_p'(\alpha_i) \neq 0$ is decidable Lemma 3. However, the arithmetic nature of the number α_i must be taken into account, as rational numbers (input angles) and transcendental numbers (antipodal points) must be dealt with using different arithmetic techniques. See below.
- Not all intervals (α_j, α_{j+1}) can provide a root. Indeed, once $F_p'(\alpha_i) > 0$, since the individual second order derivatives are positive, F_p' cannot vanish until one crosses one $\alpha_j \in \Theta^{\pm}$. As we shall see, this observation is easily accommodated in Algorithm 1.

In the following, we denote SD(p-1) the cost of deciding the sign (negative, zero, positive) of $F'_p(\theta)$, for $\theta \in \Theta$.

Compute the unique root of F_p' . Since F_p' is piecewise polynomial, finding its real root has constant time complexity for $p \leq 5$. Otherwise, a numerical method can be used [KRS16]. In the following, we denote RF(p-1) the cost of isolating the real root of a degree p-1 polynomial.

Evaluate F_p at a local minimum. Once the angle θ_m corresponding to a local minimum has been computed, we evaluate $F_p(\theta_m)$ using Eq. 10. This evaluation has O(p) complexity since the coefficients of the polynomial are known.

Maintain the polynomials F_p and F_p' . Following Eqs. 10 and 11, the function and its derivative only change when crossing an angle from Θ . At such an angle, updating the vectors B and C has complexity O(p). Overall, this step therefore has complexity O(np).

We summarize with the following output-sensitive complexity:

Theorem. 1. Algorithm 1 computes the p-mean with $O(n \log n + np + nSD(p-1) + kRF(p-1) + kp)$ complexity, with k the number of local minima of F_p .

3.3 Generic implementation

In the following, we present an implementation of our algorithm based on predicates, i.e. functions deciding branching points.

Pseudo-code, predicates and constructions Our algorithm (Algo. 1) takes as input a list of angular values (in degrees or radians) and the value of p. Following Remark 1, an optional file containing the weights may be passed. If p > 5, we take for granted an algorithm computing the root of F'_p on an interval. As a default, we resort to a bisection method which divides the interval into two, checks which side contains the unique root of F'_p , and iterates until the width of the interval is less than some user specified value τ (supporting information (SI) Algo. 3). The interval returned is called the root isolation interval. Our algorithm was implemented in generic C++ in the Structural Bioinformatics Library [CD17], as a template class whose main parameter is a geometric kernel providing the required predicates and constructions. We now discuss these–see Sec. 3.4 for their robust implementation.

Predicates. The algorithm involves two predicates:

- $\operatorname{Sign}(F_{p}^{'}(\theta))$. Predicate used to determine the sign of the $F_{p}^{'}(\theta)$ with $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$ (SI Algo. 3).
- Interval_too_wide(θ_l , θ_r). Predicate used to determine whether the root isolation interval has width less than τ (SI Algo. 3). It is true if $\theta_r \theta_l > \tau$, and false otherwise.

Constructions.

- Updating representations.. Updating the coefficients in B and C is necessary at each $\alpha_i \in \Theta$: for $F_p(\theta)$ (resp. $F_p'(\theta)$), we subtract the contribution of $f_i(\theta)$ (resp. $f_i'(\theta)$) before α_i , and add that of $f_i(\theta)$ (resp. $f_i'(\theta)$) after α_i .
- Find_root. To computing the root of $F_p^{'}$ on an interval (α_j, α_{j+1}) , we resort to a bisection method p > 3 (SI Algo. 3), with radical based formulae otherwise.

Remark 4. A kernel based on floating point number types, the double type in our case, is easily assembled, see SBL::GT::Inexact_predicates_kernel_for_frechet_mean in SI Sec. 3.5. As noticed earlier, it comes with no guarantee. In particular, the algorithm may terminate with an erroneous result if selected predicates are falsely evaluated.

3.4 Robust implementation based on exact predicates

Number types for lazy evaluations. Following the Exact Geometric Computation exact predicates are gathered in a *kernel*. We circumvent rounding errors using interval number types which are certified to contain the exact value of interest. That is, an expression x is represented by the interval $[x, \overline{x}] \ni x$. The bounds of these intervals may have a fixed precision, which corresponds to the CGAL::Interval_nt number type [cga]. Or the bounds may be multiprecision, e.g. Gmpfr from Mpfr [FHL⁺07], which corresponds to the CGAL::Gmpfi type [cga]. We now explain how these types are used to code exact predicates.

The Sign predicate. We distinguish the algebraic and transcendental cases, performing multiprecision calculations only if needed (Fig. 3).

Algorithm 1 p-mean calculation: generic algorithm for p > 1 in the real RAM model

```
1: \Theta: vector[1, 2n] containing all the angles
 2: B: vector[1, p+1] to store the coefficients of the polynomial F_p(\theta) Eq. 10
 3: C: vector[1, p] to store the coefficients of the polynomial F_p'(\theta) Eq. 11
 4: \theta^* // Angle corresponding to the global minimum of F_p
 5: Root remains = true // flag indicating whether a root must be sought on (\alpha_j, \alpha_{j+1})
    // Initialization
 8: Compute \Theta^{\pm} and form sorted \Theta
 9: \alpha_0: first angle in \Theta
10: Store the coefficients of F_p into the vector B for the interval (0, \alpha_0)
11: Store the coefficients of F_p' into vector C for the interval (0, \alpha_0)
12: Compute l \leftarrow F_n'(\theta) for \theta \to 0^+ using Eq. 11 and vector C
13: Update root(Sign(l))//Updates Root remains see SI Algo. 2
14: if Sign(l) is null then
       Compute F_p(0) using vector B and Eq. 10, and possibly update \theta^*.
15:
16:
    // For each angle, handle {interval ending, coefficients in B and C, interval starting}
17:
18: for all \alpha_i in \Theta do
19:
       if Root remains then
          Compute r \leftarrow F'_n(\theta) for \theta \rightarrow \alpha_i^- using Eq. 11 and vector C
20:
          Update root(Sign(r))/Updates Root remains see Algo. SI 2
21:
          if Sign(r) is positive then
22:
             \theta_c \leftarrow \mathbf{Find} \ \mathbf{root}(\alpha_{i-1}, \alpha_i)
23:
             Compute F_p(\theta_c) using vector B and Eq. 10, and possibly update \theta^*.
24:
25:
          else if Sign(r) is null then
26:
             Compute F_p(\alpha_i) using vector B and Eq. 10, and possibly update \theta^*.
27:
       Update the coefficients of F_p stored in vector B upon crossing \alpha_i
       Update the coefficients of F_p' stored in vector C upon crossing \alpha_i
28:
       if \alpha_i \in \Theta^{\pm} then
29:
          Compute l \leftarrow F_p(\theta) for \theta \rightarrow \alpha_i^+ using Eq. 11 and vector C
30:
          Update root(Sign(l))/Updates Root remains see SI Algo. 2
31:
32:
          if Sign(l) is null then
33:
             Compute F_p(\alpha_i) using vector B and Eq. 10, and possibly update \theta^*.
34:
    // Process the interval ending at 2\pi
36: Compute r \leftarrow F_p'(\theta) for \theta \to 2\pi^- using Eq. 11 and vector C
   if Root remains then
       if Sign(r) is positive then
38:
          \theta_c \leftarrow \mathbf{Find} \ \mathbf{root}(\theta_{2n}, 2\pi)
39:
          Compute \overline{F_p}(\theta_c) using vector B and Eq. 10, and possibly update \theta^*
40:
       else if Sign(r) is null then
41:
          Compute F_p(2\pi) using vector B and Eq. 10, and possibly update \theta^*.
42:
```

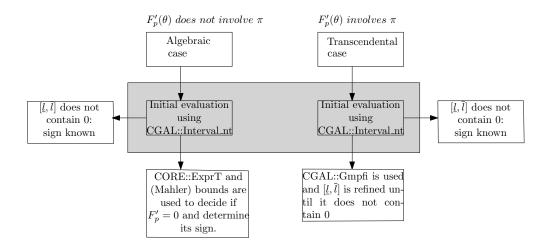


Figure 3: Number types used in the Sign predicate. Note that CGAL::Interval_nt is used in the algebraic and transcendental cases, while the remaining number types are only used if required.

- •Transcendental case: multiprecision interval arithmetic. When F_p is transcendental and α_i rational, $F_p'(\alpha_i)$ is positive or negative (lemma 3). Another case where $F_p'(\alpha_i) \neq 0$ is when $\alpha_i \in \Theta^{\pm}$. In our implementation this situation is faced in two cases. First, in the main algorithm (Algo. 1), $\operatorname{Sign}(l)$ or $\operatorname{Sign}(r)$: l and r are transcendental if $\alpha_i \in \Theta^{\pm}$. Second, in the root finding algorithm (SI Algo. 3), $\operatorname{Sign}(F_p'(c))$: c is transcendental if α_{i-1} or $\alpha_i \in \Theta^{\pm}$. In both cases, we proceed in a lazy way: first, we try to conclude using CGAL::Interval_nt; if this interval contains zero, we switch to CGAL::Gmpfi (Fig. 3), refine the interval bounds, and conclude. Refining the interval consists of iteratively doubling the number of bits used to describe all numbers—including π , until a conclusion can be reached.
- •Algebraic case: zero separation bounds. When F_p has a rational expression and α_i is rational, $\operatorname{Sign}(F_p'(\alpha_i))$ may be zero (SI Fig. 7). In this case, an input angle may also correspond to a local minimum of F_p . To decide whether $F_p'(\alpha_i) = 0$, we resort to zero separation bounds and multiprecision interval arithmetic.

Let us consider $F'_p(\alpha_i)$ as an arithmetic expression E, using a number of authorized operations $(\pm, \times, /$ in our case). A separation bound is a function sep such that the value ξ of expression E is lower bounded by sep(E) in the following manner:

If
$$\xi \neq 0$$
 then $sep(E) \leq |\xi|$ (12)

Considering $\tilde{\xi}$ an approximation of ξ and Δ an upper bounded error $|\tilde{\xi} - \xi|$.

If
$$|\tilde{\xi}| + \Delta < \text{sep}(E)$$
 then $\xi = 0$. (13)

Practically, we proceed in a lazy way, in two steps (Fig. 3). First, using CGAL::Interval_nt with double precision, we check whether we can conclude on $F_p'(\alpha_i) \neq 0$. If not—the interval contains zero, we use CORE::ExprT[KLPY99] to determine the zero separation bound and decide if $F_p'(\alpha_i) = 0$. If not, we finally determine the sign.

Predicate Interval_too_wide (θ_l, θ_r) . Returns true when $\underline{\theta_r} - \overline{\theta_l} > \tau$, false if $\overline{\theta_r} - \underline{\theta_l} \leq \tau$. Similarly to the sign predicate, we distinguish the transcendental and algebraic cases to check whether $\theta_l - \theta_r - \tau = 0$. Supposing τ and Θ_0 are rational $\theta_l - \theta_r - \tau$ is transcendental if the initial α_{i-1} or $\alpha_i \in \Theta^{\pm}$. If transcendental the interval is refined in the same way as the transcendental case of the Sign predicate. Otherwise the expression is algebraic and the precision is raised until an exact computation can be performed.

3.5 Software availability

The source code is available in the package *Frechet mean for S*¹ of the Structural Bioinformatics Library (SBL), a library proposing state-of-the art methods in computational structural biology [CD17], see https://sbl.inria.fr/doc/Frechet_mean_S1-user-manual.html and https://sbl.inria.fr/.

For end-users, the package provides executables corresponding to the robust and non-robust implementations. Given a list of angles and the value of p, the program returns sorted list of pairs (angular value of local minimum, function value) by increasing value of F_p . A Jupyter notebook Frechet_mean_S1.ipynb using SAGE (https://www.sagemath.org/) is also provided.

For developers, The C++ code of our algorithm is provided in the class

SBL::GT::Frechet_mean_S1, which is templated by the kernel. Two kernels are provided, namely (i) Nonrobust kernel: SBL::GT::Inexact_predicates_kernel_for_frechet_mean. A plain floating point(double) number type is used, and (ii) Robust kernel:

SBL::GT::Lazy_exact_predicates_kernel _for_frechet_mean. See Sec. 3.4.

4 Experiments

4.1 Overview

Our experiments target three aspects, namely (i) robustness, (ii), comparison of the Fréchet mean against the classical circular mean, and (iii) computational complexity. Practically, three sets of angles are used. (Dataset 1) Randomly generated angles. (Dataset 2) So-called dihedral angles χ_i in proteins, defined by 4 consecutive atoms on the side chains of amino acids. (Recall that a protein is a polymer of amino acids, and that the 20 natural a.a. differ by their so-called side chains. See Fig. 6 for an example.) These angles are known to be dependent, and correlations between them are key to reduce the dimensionality of the conformation space of proteins [TWS⁺10]. Using the Protein Data Bank, we retained 27093 PDB files with a resolution of 3 angstroms or better. For all polypeptide chains in these files, we computed all dihedral angles of all standard (20) amino-acids. This results in 240 classes of dihedral angles, containing from 50,227 to 439,793 observations. (Dataset 3) Also protein dihedral angles, but from a so-called rotamer library [SDJ11]. Rotamers (rotational isomers) are preferred conformations adopted by side chains, used to characterize protein conformations.

Note that in all cases, angles being given with finite precision (they are derived from experimentally determined atomic coordinates), they are treated as rational numbers.

4.2 Robustness

Using our robust interval-based implementation, we count the fraction of cases for which at least one predicate triggers refinement during an execution. We use sets of $n \in [10, 1000]$ angles generated uniformly at random in $[0, 2\pi)$, and perform 1000 repeats for each value of n (SI Fig. 4). For large values of p, whenever n > 1000, all executions require interval refinement. Even for p = 2 and $n = 10^5$, refinement is triggered in 1.3% of the cases. In all the cases where refinement was triggered, doubling the precision was sufficient to solve the predicate.

4.3 Fréchet mean

Fréchet mean versus circular mean. A classical way to estimate the circular mean of a set of angles is the *resultant* or *circular mean*, defined as follows [MJ09]:

$$\overline{\theta} = \operatorname{atan2}(\sum_{i} \sin \theta_{i} / n, \sum_{i} \cos \theta_{i} / n). \tag{14}$$

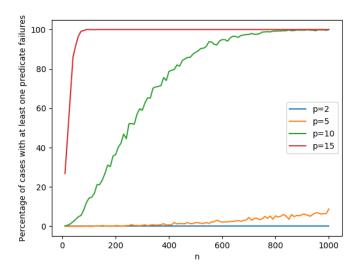


Figure 4: Fraction of program runs for which at least one predicate execution triggers refinement, as a function of n and p. The number of repeats for each value of n is 1000.

The circular mean does not minimize F_p , but minimizes instead [JS01, Section 1.3]:

$$\overline{\theta} = \arg\min \sum_{i=1,\dots,n} d(\theta_i, \theta), \text{ with } d(\alpha, \beta) = 1 - \cos(\alpha - \beta).$$
 (15)

Given a set of angles, we compare the variance of these angles with respect to the Fréchet mean θ^* and the circular mean $\overline{\theta}$, respectively. Two datasets were used for such experiments: first, randomly generated sets of n=30 angles uniformly at random in $[0,2\pi)$, with 1000 repeats; second, the aforementioned dihedral angles in protein structures.

For both types of data, the variance obtained for $\overline{\theta}$ is significantly larger than that obtained for θ^* , typically up to 25% (Fig. 5). This shows the interest of using θ^* in data analysis in general, and to center angles prior to principal components analysis in particular.

4.4 Computation time and complexity

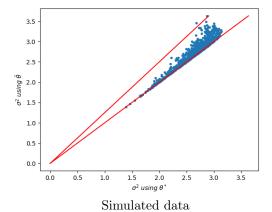
The complexity of Algorithm 1 (Theorem. 1) has three main components: the sorting step, the updates of vectors B and C, and the numerics. We wish in particular to determine whether the $n \log n$ sorting term dominates.

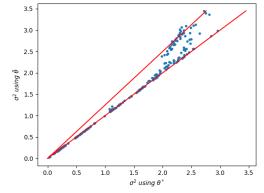
For $p \in \{2, 5, 10, 15\}$, we use sets of $n \in [10^3, 10^5]$ angles generated uniformly at random in $[0, 2\pi)$, and perform 5 repeats for each value of n. For p = 2, the number of angles is pushed up to $n = 10^7$, with the same number of repeats. In any case, a linear complexity is practically observed (SI Fig. 8) showing that for the values of n used, the constants associated with the linear time update of the data structures and the numerics take over the $n \log n$ term of the sorting step.

4.5 Application to clustering on the flat torus

Rotamers characterize the geometry of protein side chains (Sec. 4.1). State of the art rotameric libraries treat the dihedral angles independently [SDJ11]. For the a.a. lysine (LYS), (Fig. 6(Inset)), four angles and 3 canonical values for each yield $3^4 = 81$ rotamers.

We undertake the problem of clustering side chains conformations using k-means++ [AV07]. While k-means is a classical clustering method, the problem solved is non convex and inferring the *right* number of





Torsion angles from protein structural data

Figure 5: Variance of angles with respect to the Fréchet mean θ^* and the circular average $\overline{\theta}$. (Left) Comparison using a simulated set with n=30 angles at random in $[0,2\pi)$, with 1000 repeats. (Right) Comparison for the 243 classes dihedral angles in protein structures—see text. (Both panels) In red y=x and y=5/4x.

clusters is always problematic [CMTW19]. One way to mitigate this difficulty consists of tracking an elbow in the plot of the k-means functional [Ng12]. Using the lysine (LYS) a.a. as example, we work directly on the 4D flat torus $(S^1)^4$, and center the data within a cluster using our Fréchet algorithm. Varying the value of k shows a sharp decline of the k-means++ criterion circa k = 40, and then a gradual straightening of the average squared distance (Fig. 6). Working directly on the flat torus therefore makes it possible to capture correlations between individual dihedral angles. The application to a significant reduction (factor of two or so) of rotamers will be reported elsewhere.

5 Outlook

The Fréchet mean and the p-mean are of central importance as zero dimensional statistical summaries of data which do not live in Euclidean spaces. For the particular case of S^1 , this paper develops the first robust algorithm computing the p-mean. Our algorithm is effective for large number of angular values and large values of p as well, yet, robustness requires predicates and constructions using interval multiprecision arithmetic. For the particular case of the Fréchet mean (p=2), we show that the circular mean should not be used for a substitute to the circular center of mass, as it results in a significantly larger variance.

We foresee two main developments. Application-wise, our results on protein side chain conformations hint at a significant reduction (factor of two or so) of rotamers, which should prove instrumental to foster the diversity of conformational explorations. Also, our centering procedure will help generalizing principal components analysis (PCA) on the flat torus. In theoretical realm, our strategy may be used both to study the intrinsic difficulty of computing p-means (in terms of lower bounds), and to design effective algorithms. Indeed, as evidenced by the S^1 case, the combinatorial structure defined by the cut-loci of the points determines all key properties. A first case would be that of p-means on the unit sphere, for which there exist efficient algorithms to maintain arrangements of circles.

Acknowledgments. Chee Yap and Sylvain Pion are acknowledged for discussions on irrational number theory and number types, respectively.

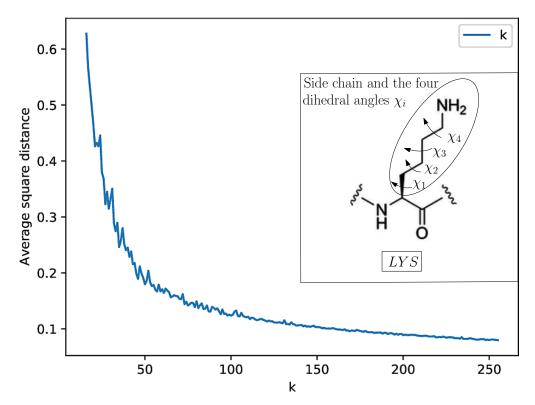


Figure 6: k-means++ using Fréchet mean as center performed on 4-dimensional flat torus coding the conformational space of the side chain of the Lysine amino acid. x-axis: number of clusters k. y-axis: average squared distance to the closest cluster center.

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6 Supporting information

6.1 Algorithm

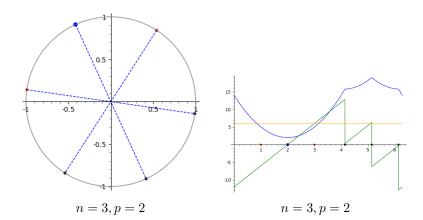


Figure 7: An interval where F_p has an algebraic expression and $F_p'(\theta) = 0$. Illustration of F_p, F_p', F_p' for p = 2 and three angles $\Theta_0 = \{\theta_1 = 1, \theta_2 = 2, \theta_3 = 3\}$. Color conventions as in Fig. 1. In this case, $F_2'(\theta_2) = 0$, which must be numerically ascertained to ensure the correctness of the algorithm.

```
Algorithm 2 Update root(Sign): Updates the Root_remains buffer in main algorithm(Algo. 1)
```

```
1: Sign \in \{positive, negative, null\} // Sign of the derivative used to update the presence of roots on (\alpha_j, \alpha_{j+1})

2: Root_remains \leftarrow true // flag indicating whether a root must be sought on (\alpha_j, \alpha_{j+1})

3: if Sign is negative then

4: Root_remains \leftarrow true

5: else if Sign is positive then

6: Root_remains \leftarrow false

7: else if Sign is null then

8: Root_remains \leftarrow false
```

Algorithm 3 Find root(α_{i-1}, α_i): generic algorithm for p > 5

```
1: \alpha_{i-1}, \alpha_i: the left and right endpoints of the initial interval
 2: \tau: Threshold to stop binary search if interval is small enough
 3: c: Center of interval g
 4: \theta_l \leftarrow \alpha_{i-1}, \theta_r \leftarrow \alpha_i // Interval being bisected
 5: while Interval_too_wide(\theta_l, \theta_r) do
         c \leftarrow \theta_l + (\theta_r - \theta_l)/2
 6:
         S \leftarrow \operatorname{Sign}(F_p'(c))
 7:
         if S is positive then
 8:
 9:
             \theta_r \leftarrow c
         else if S is negative then
10:
11:
             \theta_l \leftarrow c
12:
         else if S is null then
13:
             \theta_r \leftarrow c
             \theta_l \leftarrow c
14:
15: \theta_c \leftarrow \theta_l + (\theta_r - \theta_l)/2
```

6.2 Results

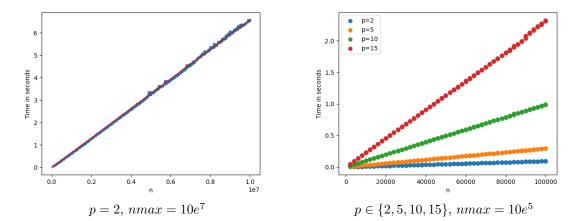


Figure 8: **Fréchet mean: computation time depending as a function of** n **and** p. The samples of size n are generated at random angles at random in $[0, 2\pi)$. (**Left**) The red line joins 0, 0 to the average time of the largest point sets($nmax = 10e^7$). (**Right**) Each color corresponds to a value of $p \in \{2, 5, 10, 15\}$.

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