

Improving galaxy morphology with machine learning

P. H. Barchi^{a1}, R. Sautter^a, F. G. da Costa^b, T. C. Moura^a, D. H. Stalder^a, R.R. Rosa^a and R.R. de Carvalho^a

^aNational Institute for Space Research (INPE), São José dos Campos, SP, Brazil

^bUniversity of São Paulo (USP), São Carlos, SP, Brazil

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Abstract

This paper presents machine learning experiments performed over results of galaxy classification into elliptical (E) and spiral (S) with morphological parameters: concentration (CN), asymmetry metrics (A3), smoothness metrics (S3), entropy (H) and gradient pattern analysis parameter (GA). Except concentration, all parameters performed a image segmentation pre-processing. For supervision and to compute confusion matrices, we used as true label the galaxy classification from GalaxyZoo. With a 48145 objects dataset after preprocessing (44760 galaxies labeled as S and 3385 as E), we performed experiments with Support Vector Machine (SVM) and Decision Tree (DT). With a 1962 objects balanced dataset, we applied K-means and Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering. All experiments with supervision reached an Overall Accuracy $OA \geq 97\%$.

Keywords: Machine Learning, Computational Astrophysics.

1. Introduction

The volume of digital data of stars, galaxies, and the universe has multiplied in recent decades due to the rapid development of new technologies as new satellites, telescopes, and other observatory instruments. The process of scientific discovery is increasingly dependent on the ability to analyse massive amounts of complex data from scientific instruments and simulations. Such analysis has become the bottleneck of the scientific process [1, 2, 3, 4, 5].

By studying global properties of early-type galaxies (ETGs), researchers from the thematic project [6] have been able to constrain models of galaxy formation and evolution. These thematic project in progress [6, 7] extends galaxy evolution studies to consistently investigate galaxies and their environments over a significant time baseline. To this end, Ferrari et al. [8] presents an extended morphometric system to automatically classify galaxies from astronomical images and Andrade et al. [9] introduces the preliminary results of the characterization of pattern evolution in the process of cosmic structure formation.

In the context of these projects, this paper presents the first steps towards improving galaxy morphology with Machine Learning (ML). The dataset used for supervised learning experiments consists of 48145 objects after preprocessing, with 44760 galaxies labeled as S and 3385 as E. The preprocessing removed 3611 objects with missing data for one of the features: CN. We used as features of the dataset the best morphological parameters from each type to classify galaxies: concentration (CN), asymmetry metrics (A3), smoothness metrics (S3), entropy (H) and gradient pattern analysis parameter (sGA). These are preliminary results from an ongoing research about morphological parameters to classify galaxies into spiral (S) and elliptical (E) – a full publication about it will be released soon [10]. The target of our dataset (considered as true label) is the classification from Galaxy Zoo project [11]. The experiments were conducted to explore different method parametrization, if it is applicable. For the unsupervised learning experiments, we used a balanced dataset with 1962 objects.

As related work of ML in this astrophysical context, Ball and Brunner [12] surveys a long list of data mining and ML projects for analyzing astronomical data. Ivezi et al. [3] provides modern statistical methods for analyzing astronomical data. Vasconcellos et al. [13] employ decision tree classifiers for star/galaxy separation. And more recently, Schawinski et al. [14] used Generative Adversarial Networks (GAN) to recover features in astrophysical images of galaxies.

¹E-mail Corresponding Author: paulobarchi@gmail.com

48 In Sections 2 and 3 we present the experiments performed with supervised and unsupervised ML methods,
49 respectively, using scikit-learn python library [15]. In all experiments we explored the 5 parameters with best
50 confusion matrices obtained by Sautter [10] for galaxy classification: CN, A3, S3, H, and Ga. In this work,
51 the confusion matrices for each experiment present the necessary values to calculate the metrics presented in
52 Tables 5 and 6 – for each class (S and E): true positives (TP - correctly classified objects), false positives (FP
53 - error, galaxies which are not from this class and classified as such), true negatives (TN - objects correctly
54 rejected in classification for this class), and false negatives (FN - error, galaxies mistakenly rejected to be
55 classified for such class). We conclude the paper presenting the results and final considerations in Section 4.
56

57 2. Supervised Learning Methods

58 Supervised Learning (SL) is a learning process guided by some form of supervision to build a model to
59 perform the approached task. This supervision may be associated, for example, with a previously labeled
60 sample; from these, patterns can be identified to sort or group new, unlabelled examples. For this, the
61 dataset must be split into different sets to train, validate and test the model.

62 There are various approaches concerning the split of the whole dataset into training, validating and test
63 sets for supervised methods. By partitioning the available data into three sets, we drastically reduce the
64 number of samples which can be used for learning the model, and the results can depend on a particular
65 random choice for the pair of (train, validation) sets. A solution to this problem is a procedure called cross-
66 validation (CV): a way to address the tradeoff between bias and variance. In the basic CV approach used in
67 this work, denominated k-fold CV, a model is trained using k-1 of the folds as training data [15].

68 So, for these experiments, first we split the dataset, for instance, in a 80-20 proportion for training and
69 test sets, respectively. From the 80% of the first split, we apply k-fold CV for the training phase, with k
70 = 20 folds and k = 5 folds. The resulting model is validated on the remaining part of the data. With this
71 procedure, the model is ready to the test phase. Then, we test with the 20% remaining data from the first
72 split. Analogously, we also made experiments with a 50-50 proportion for the first split. As mentioned in
73 Section 1, the dataset used for these experiments consists of 48145 objects after preprocessing, with 44760
74 galaxies labeled as S and 3385 as E.

75 We also used a Grid Search (GS) to exhaustively generate candidates from a grid of parameter values.
76 For the case of the Decision Tree (DT) classifiers, the parameter values are relative to the depth of the DT.
77 When fitting the model to the dataset, all possible combinations of parameter values are evaluated and the
78 best combination is retained. This is done using the CV score which is basically a convenience wrapper for
79 the sklearn cross-validation iterators. Given a classifier (such as Support Vector Machine) and the dataset
80 for training phase (in this case, 80% of the whole dataset for training and validating), it automatically
81 performs rounds of CV by splitting training/validation sets, fitting the training and computing the score
82 on the validation set. GS and CV score used here are provided by *GridSearchCV* and *cross_val_score* from
83 scikit-learn python library [15].
84

85 2.1. Support Vector Machines (SVM)

86 On the problem of binary classification, it is possible to draw infinite different hyperplanes for separating
87 both classes so that the error rate reaches a minimum. Support Vector Machines (SVM) constructs the
88 optimal hyperplane that will divide the target classes. An optimal hyperplane is the one that maximizes the
89 separation margins between the classes, providing a unique solution for the problem [16].

90 When the input data is not linearly separable, i.e., the input space can not be separated by a line, the
91 Support Vector Machines implement the 'kernel-trick', in which the input space is mapped into some high
92 dimensional feature space through some non-linear mapping chosen a priori. This mapping is done by a dot-
93 product in the feature space, by an N-dimensional vector function $\phi(\cdot)$, which can be a polynomial function,
94 a radial basis function or other [17].

95 We conducted 4 experiments with SVM described below. The Table 1 presents their confusion matrices.

- 96 • #SVM1: K-fold CV with k = 5 and data split in 50-50 proportion for training and test;

- 97 • #SVM2: K-fold CV with $k = 5$ and data split in 80-20 proportion for training and test;
 98 • #SVM3: K-fold CV with $k = 20$ and data split in 50-50 proportion for training and test;
 99 • #SVM4: K-fold CV with $k = 20$ and data split in 80-20 proportion for training and test;

		Pred. label				Pred. label	
		S	E			S	E
True	S	22044	323	True	S	8807	125
label	E	294	1412	label	E	135	562
		Pred. label				Pred. label	
		S	E			S	E
True	S	22092	280	True	S	8861	106
label	E	347	1354	label	E	132	530

Table 1: Confusion Matrices for the experiments with Support Vector Machine (SVM1, SVM2, SVM3 and SVM4, from left to right, respectively).

100

101 **2.2. Decision Tree (DT)**

102 Decision Tree (DT) is a supervised machine learning method to classification and regression. The goal
 103 here is to create a model which predicts the classification by learning simple decision rules inferred from the
 104 dataset [18]. Classification and Regression Tree (CART) is very similar to the C4.5 Decision Tree algorithm,
 105 but it supports numerical target values and does not compute rule sets. CART builds binary trees using
 106 feature and threshold that yields the largest information gain at each node. We used the optimized version
 107 of CART algorithm provided by scikit-learn python library [15].

108 The experiments with DT followed the same procedure performed with SVM, and their confusion matrices
 109 are shown in Table 2.

- 110 • #DT1: K-fold CV with $k = 5$ and data split in 50-50 proportion for training and test;
 111 • #DT2: K-fold CV with $k = 5$ and data split in 80-20 proportion for training and test;
 112 • #DT3: K-fold CV with $k = 20$ and data split in 50-50 proportion for training and test;
 113 • #DT4: K-fold CV with $k = 20$ and data split in 80-20 proportion for training and test;

		Pred. label				Pred. label	
		S	E			S	E
True	S	22167	255	True	S	8841	81
label	E	271	1380	label	E	160	547
		Pred. label				Pred. label	
		S	E			S	E
True	S	22089	295	True	S	8827	111
label	E	297	1392	label	E	116	575

Table 2: Confusion Matrices for the experiments with Decision Tree (DT1, DT2, DT3 and DT4, from left to right, respectively).

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115

3. Unsupervised Learning Methods

Unsupervised Learning (UL), as can be inferred from the name, differs from SL because has no supervision, i.e., there is no model to guide the learning process. One of the most common tasks in UL is to form groups of non-labeled examples according to their similarities, process also denominated as clustering.

In this unsupervised context, we used no supervision at all for clustering methods to obtain the performance of each method with a balanced dataset with 1962 objects, without considering the GalaxyZoo labels, aiming to prepare for future unlabeled datasets.

3.1. K-means Clustering

One of the more general-purpose clustering methods (non-supervised machine learning), K-means finds clusters of similar sizes, flat geometry, not many clusters, and accepts specification of clusters [19]. Among the possible variations of this clustering algorithm in scikit-learn library, it is possible to vary the number of times that the algorithm will execute with different seeds as centroids; However, with tests varying this value between 10, 100, 1000, there was no relevant variation in the resulting cluster. Another possible variation is related to the method to start the selection of the centers of the algorithms: 'k-means ++' accelerates the convergence and 'random' selects randomly. With this clustering method, we conducted 2 experiments, one using 'k-means++' (*K-means1*) and the other 'random' (*K-means2*), which both obtained the same result.

		Pred. label				Pred. label	
		S	E			S	E
True	S	831	137	True	S	831	137
label	E	63	931	label	E	63	931

Table 3: Confusion Matrices for the experiments with K-means Clustering.

3.2. Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering (AHC)

Starting with all n objects to be clustered, AHC groups these objects into successively fewer than n sets. It is a hierarchical nonoverlapping method that specify a sequence P_0, \dots, P_w of partitions of the objects in which P_0 is the disjoint partition, P_w is the conjoint partition, and P_i is a refinement (in the usual sense) of P_j for all $0 \leq i < j \leq w$. It is a sequential method since the same algorithm is used iteratively to generate P_{i+1} from P_i for all $0 \leq i < w$. Is is a pair-group method: at each iteration exactly two clusters are agglomerated into a single cluster [20]. Although it is more suitable to find many clusters through this unsupervised approach, in this experiment we used Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering (AHC) to find two clusters (*AHC* experiment), i.e., our result is the two main subgroups obtained from the whole datasets (the smaller subgroups are irrelevant for this experiment).

The resulting Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering with the two clusters found is represented in Figure 1 with all possible three dimensional representations, i.e., three morphological parameters combined at time to build the 3D data space.

		Pred. label	
		S	E
True	S	946	48
label	E	175	793

Table 4: Confusion Matrix for the experiment with Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering.

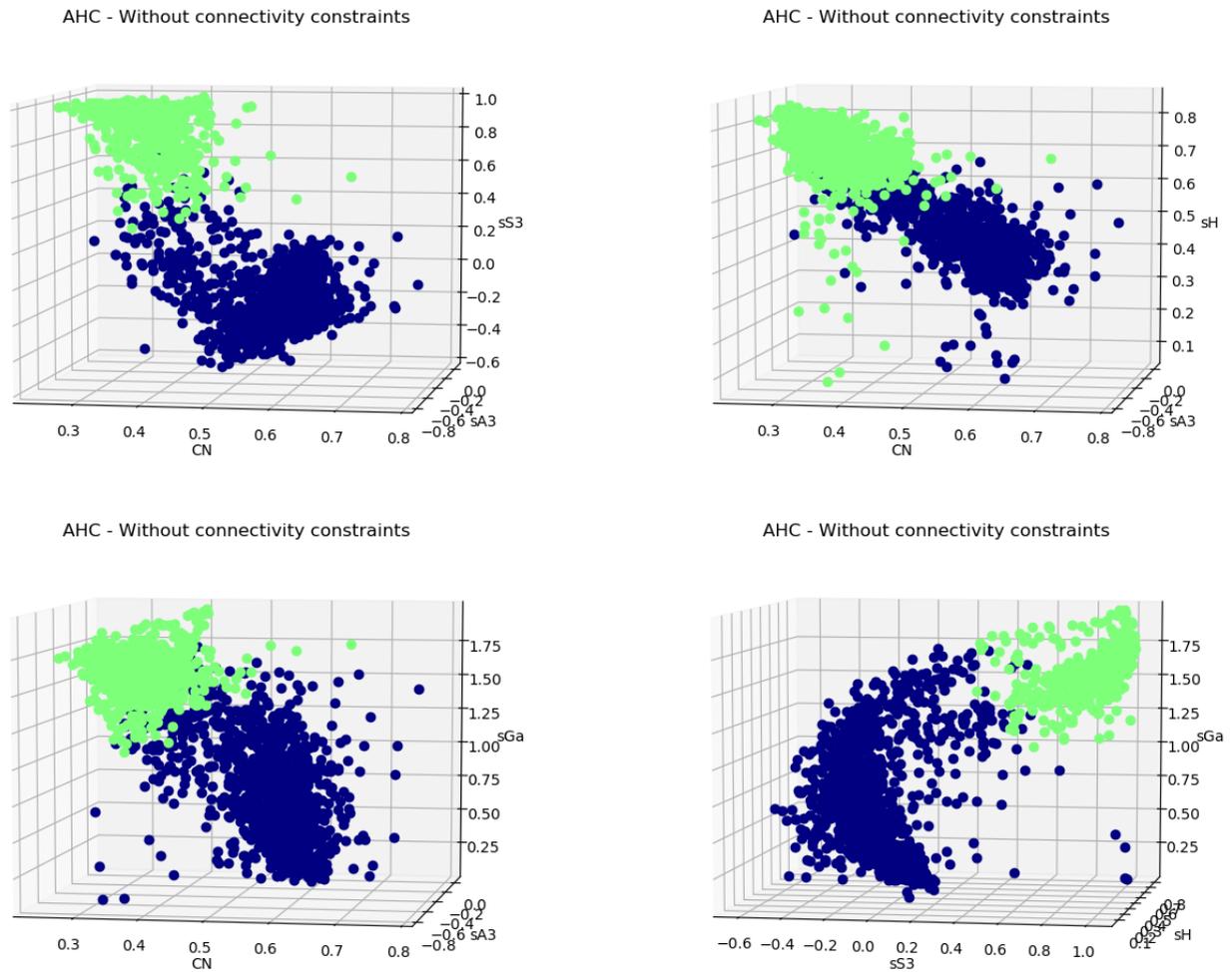


Figure 1: Representations in three dimensions of the result of Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering.

4. Concluding Remarks

The Tables 5 and 6 present a comparative summary of the supervised and unsupervised experiments, respectively, with precision **P** ($TP/(TP + FP)$) and recall **R** ($TP/(TP + FN)$) for each galaxy class: spiral (**S**) and elliptical (**E**). **F-score** ($F_1 = 2 \times (P \times C)/(P + C)$), **Overall Accuracy** (**OA** = $(TP + TN)/(TP + TN + FP + FN)$) and **Kappa index** (κ) for each experiment also appear in these tables. Kappa is a statistic which measures inter-rater agreement for classification problems. Inter-rater agreement, also known as concordance, is the degree of agreement among raters. Thus, Kappa measures the degree of agreement beyond what would be expected by chance alone. This measure has a maximum value of 1, where 1 represents total agreement; and values close to and below 0, indicate no agreement, or agreement was exactly the one expected by chance.

#Exp	P(S) %	R(S) %	P(E) %	R(E) %	F_1 %	OA %	κ
SVM1	98.556	98.684	82.767	81.383	0.9862	97.437	0.807
SVM2	98.601	98.49	80.631	81.805	0.9855	97.3	0.798
SVM3	98.748	98.454	79.6	82.864	0.9860	97.395	0.798
SVM4	98.818	98.532	80.06	83.333	0.9867	97.528	0.803
DT1	98.863	98.792	83.586	84.404	0.9883	97.815	0.828
DT2	98.85	98.707	82.738	84.37	0.9866	97.726	0.823
DT3	98.682	98.673	82.416	82.513	0.9868	97.541	0.811
DT4	98.758	98.703	83.213	83.819	0.9873	97.643	0.822

Table 5: Precision (P), Recall (R) and F-score (F_1) for each class; Overall Accuracy (OA) and κ for each supervised experiment.

#Exp	P(S) %	R(S) %	P(E) %	R(E) %	F_1 %	OA %	κ
K-means1	85,847	95,953	93,662	87,172	0.8926	89,806	0,796
K-means2	85,847	95,953	93,662	87,172	0.8926	89,806	0,796
AHC	95,171	84,389	81,921	94,293	0.8946	88,634	0,772

Table 6: Precision (P), Recall (R) and F-score (F_1) for each class; Overall Accuracy (OA) and κ for each unsupervised experiment.

In general, DTs have the best results, considering CN as the most important feature to separate galaxies into spiral and elliptical (responsible attribute for the first decision in all DTs). The Grid Search applied in the supervised methods optimized the OA. Due to the unbalance in the dataset (44760 galaxies labeled as S and 3385 as E), none experiment reached Kappa index (κ) of 0,9, although the interval $0,8 \leq \kappa \leq 1$ is considered of excellent concordance. The recall was also affected by this unbalance. However, all supervised methods have over 97% of OA.

For future works with clustering methods, we plan to build trained models with this dataset to give supervision in this classification task with bigger unlabeled datasets. Also, we are studying to apply Generative Adversarial Networks (GAN) [21] and other Deep Learning techniques to improve galaxy morphology with machine learning further.

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