

Lecture 6: Ingredients for Machine Learning

Machine Learning and Imaging

BME 548L
Roarke Horstmeyer

Outline

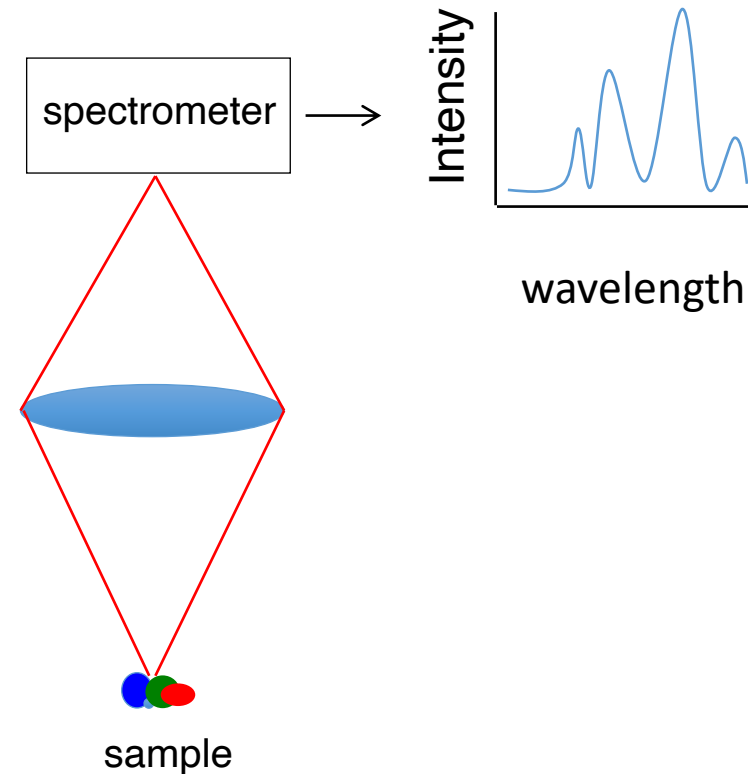
- Review spectral unmixing (last class)
- From optimization to machine learning
- Ingredients for ML
- Example: linear classification of images
 - Train/test data
 - Linear regression model
 - 3 ways to solve

Last time: simple example of spectral unmixing

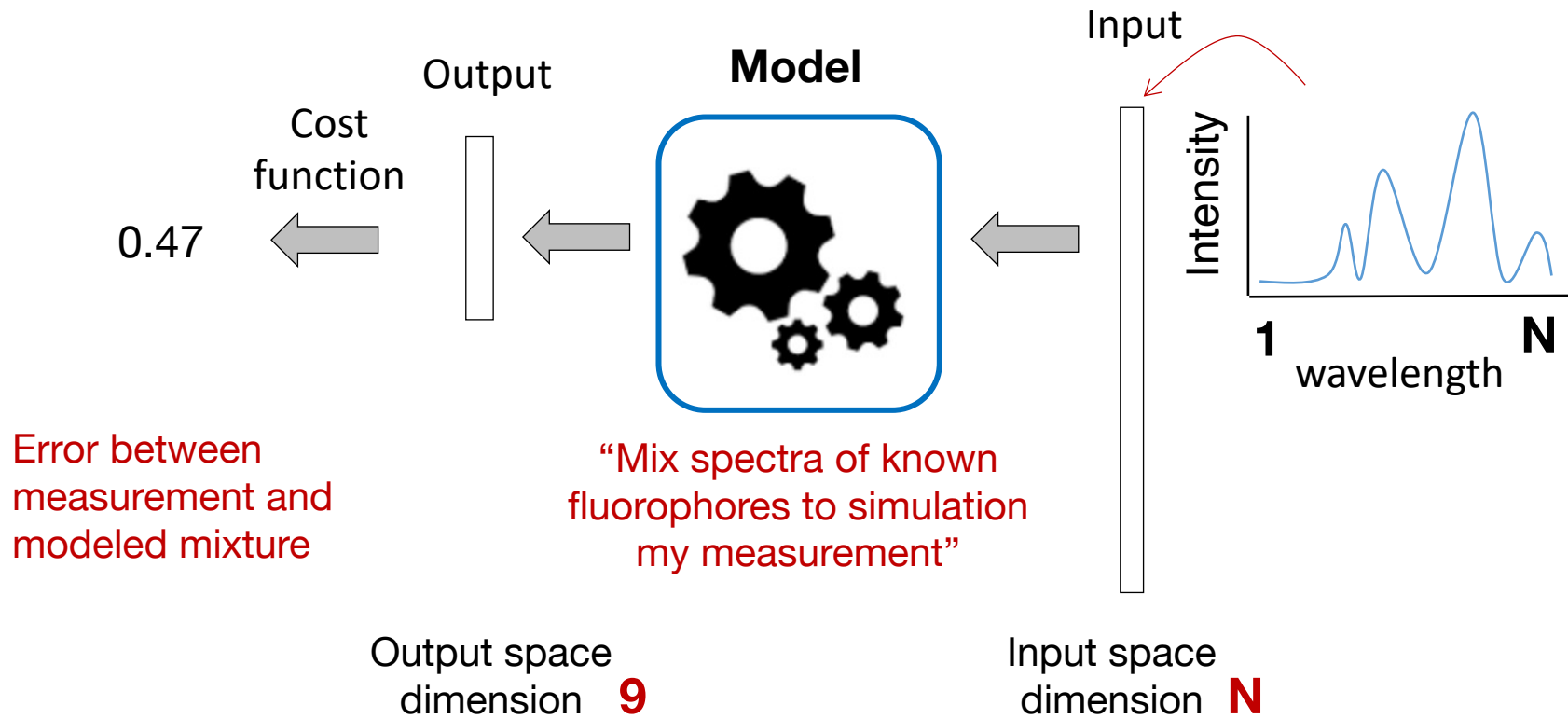
(For whatever reason, whenever I get confused about optimization, I think about this example)

The setup:

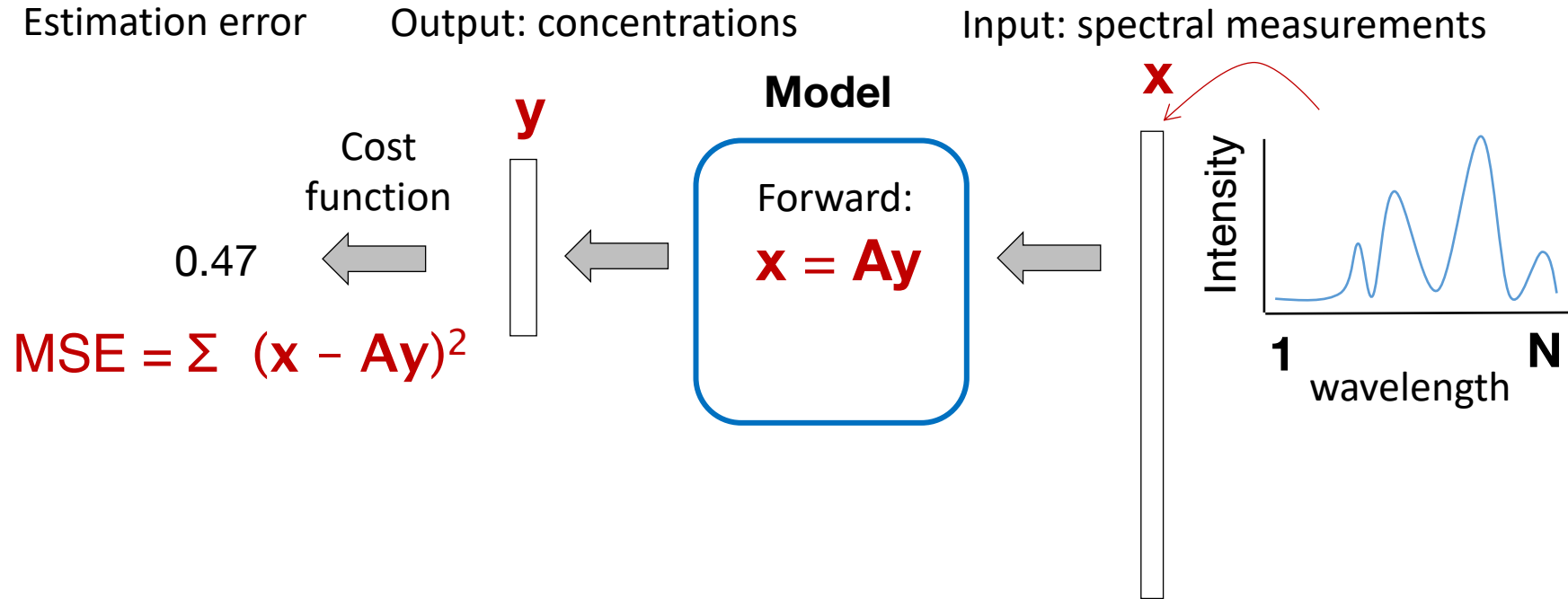
- measure the color (spectral) response of a sample (e.g., how much red, green and blue there is, or several hundred measurements of its different colors).
- You know that the sample can only contain 9 different fluorophores.
- What % of each fluorophores is in your sample?



Optimization pipeline for spectral unmixing

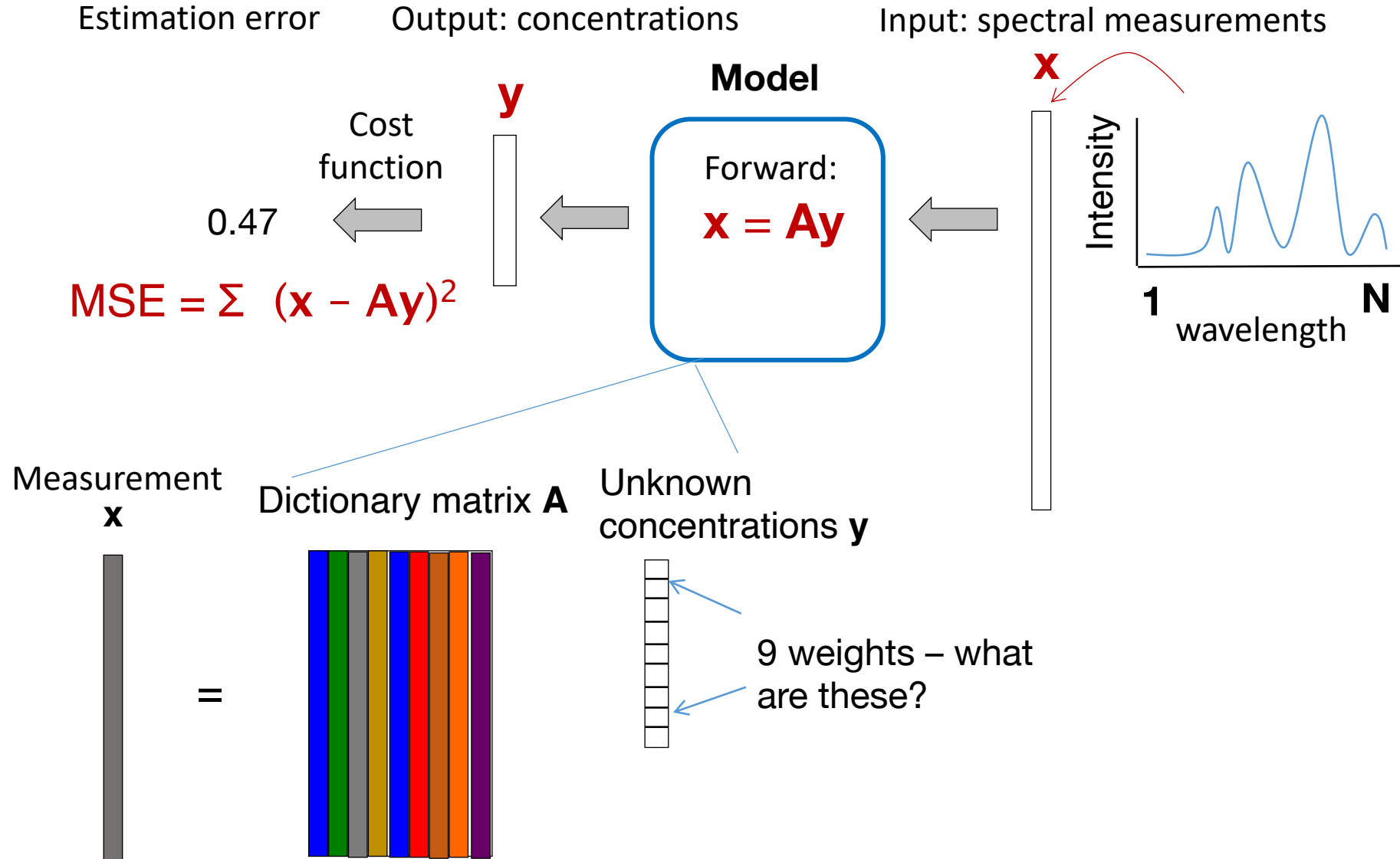


Optimization pipeline for spectral unmixing



*Note: notation changed from last time to be consistent with we'll use in the future

Optimization pipeline for spectral unmixing



Cost function for spectral unmixing

$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}$ won't always be true, due to noise (actually, $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{n}$)

Common cost function is minimum mean-squared error:

$$\text{Cost function } f(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{\text{spectral measurements}} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})^2$$

Cost function for spectral unmixing

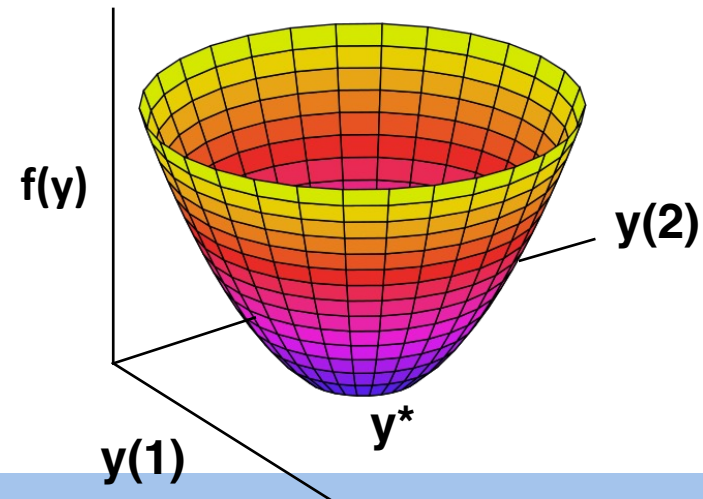
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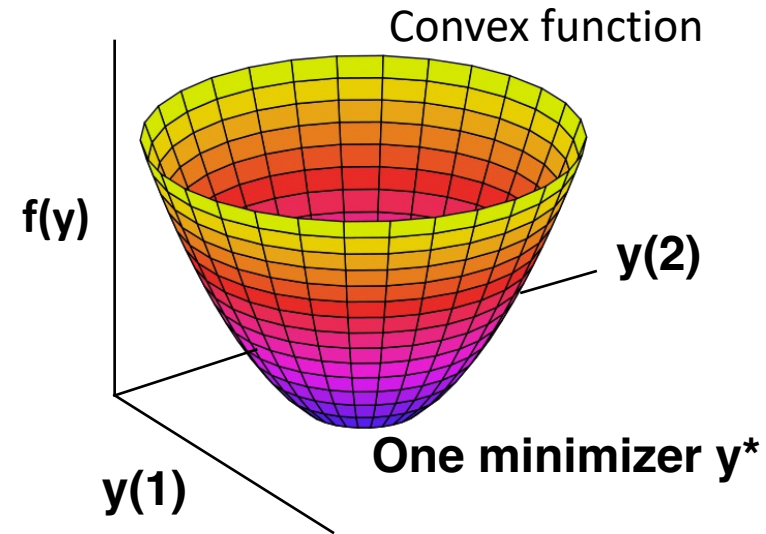
Find mixture \mathbf{y} of known spectra \mathbf{A} that is as close as possible to measurement \mathbf{x}

$$\mathbf{y}^* = \text{minimize } f(\mathbf{y})$$

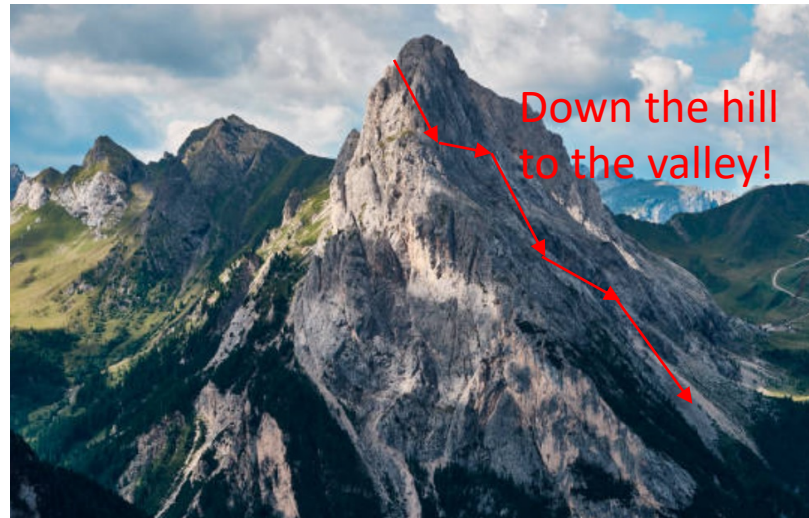


Cost function for spectral unmixing

$$f(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{\text{spectral measurements}} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})^2$$

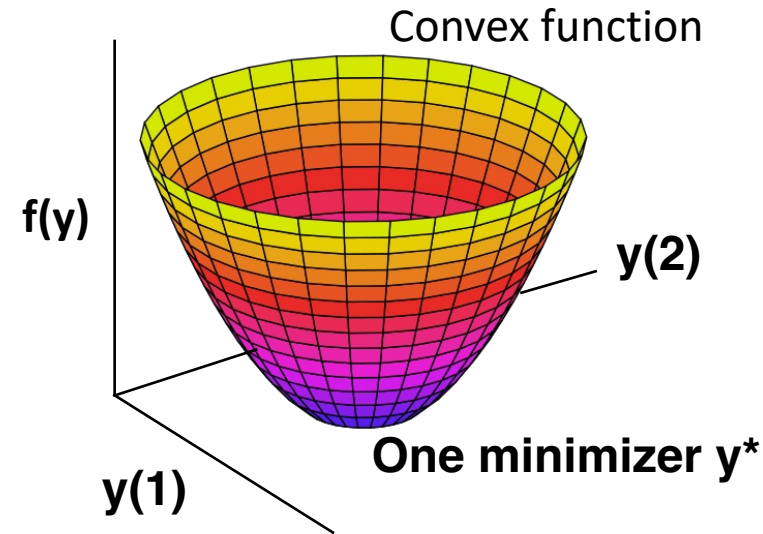


$f(\mathbf{y})$ is convex, so finding \mathbf{y}^* is easy via its gradient:



Cost function for spectral unmixing

$$f(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{\text{spectral measurements}} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})^2$$



$f(\mathbf{y})$ is convex, so finding \mathbf{y}^* is easy via its gradient:

$$d/d\mathbf{y} f(\mathbf{y}) = d/d\mathbf{y} \sum (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})^2$$

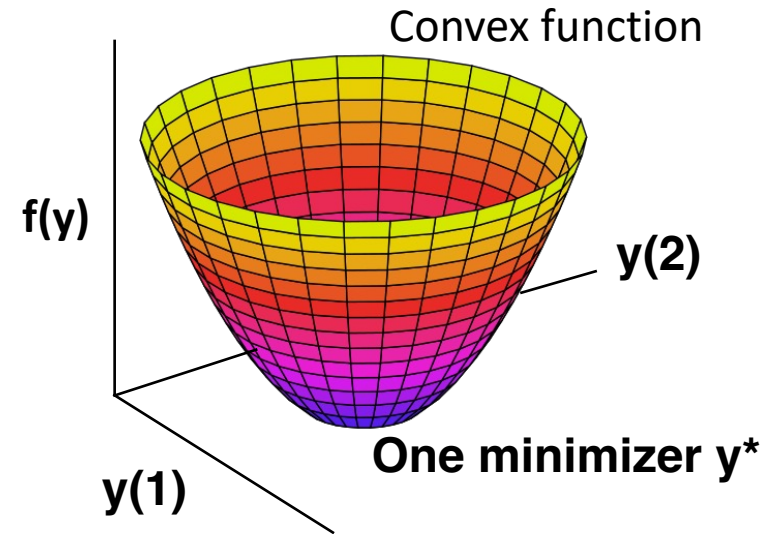
$$df/d\mathbf{y} = \sum d/d\mathbf{y} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})^2$$

$$df/dy[j] = \sum -2 \mathbf{a}(:,j) * (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})$$

$$df/d\mathbf{y} = -2 \mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})$$

Cost function for spectral unmixing

$$f(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{\text{spectral measurements}} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})^2$$

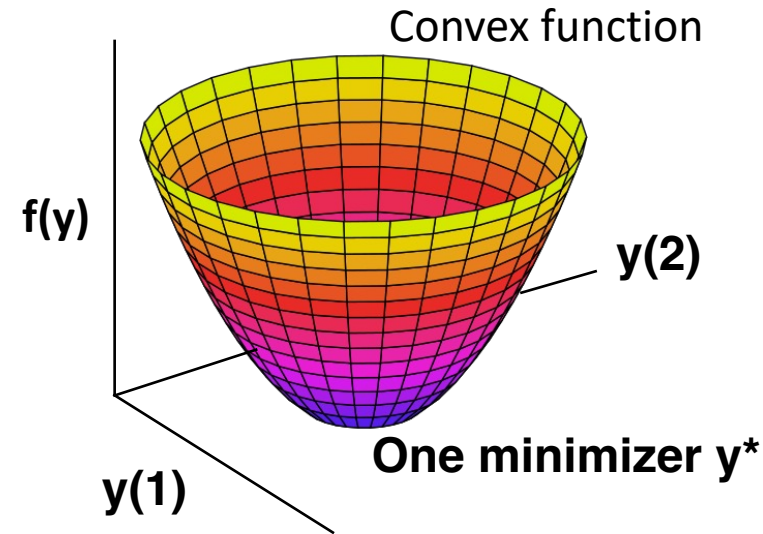


Method 2: *Direct solution* – set derivative to 0 to find \mathbf{y}^* directly

$$\frac{df}{d\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}^*) = 0 \quad \leftarrow \mathbf{y}^* \text{ is where gradient of } f(\mathbf{y}) \text{ is zero}$$

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$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}^* \quad \longrightarrow$$

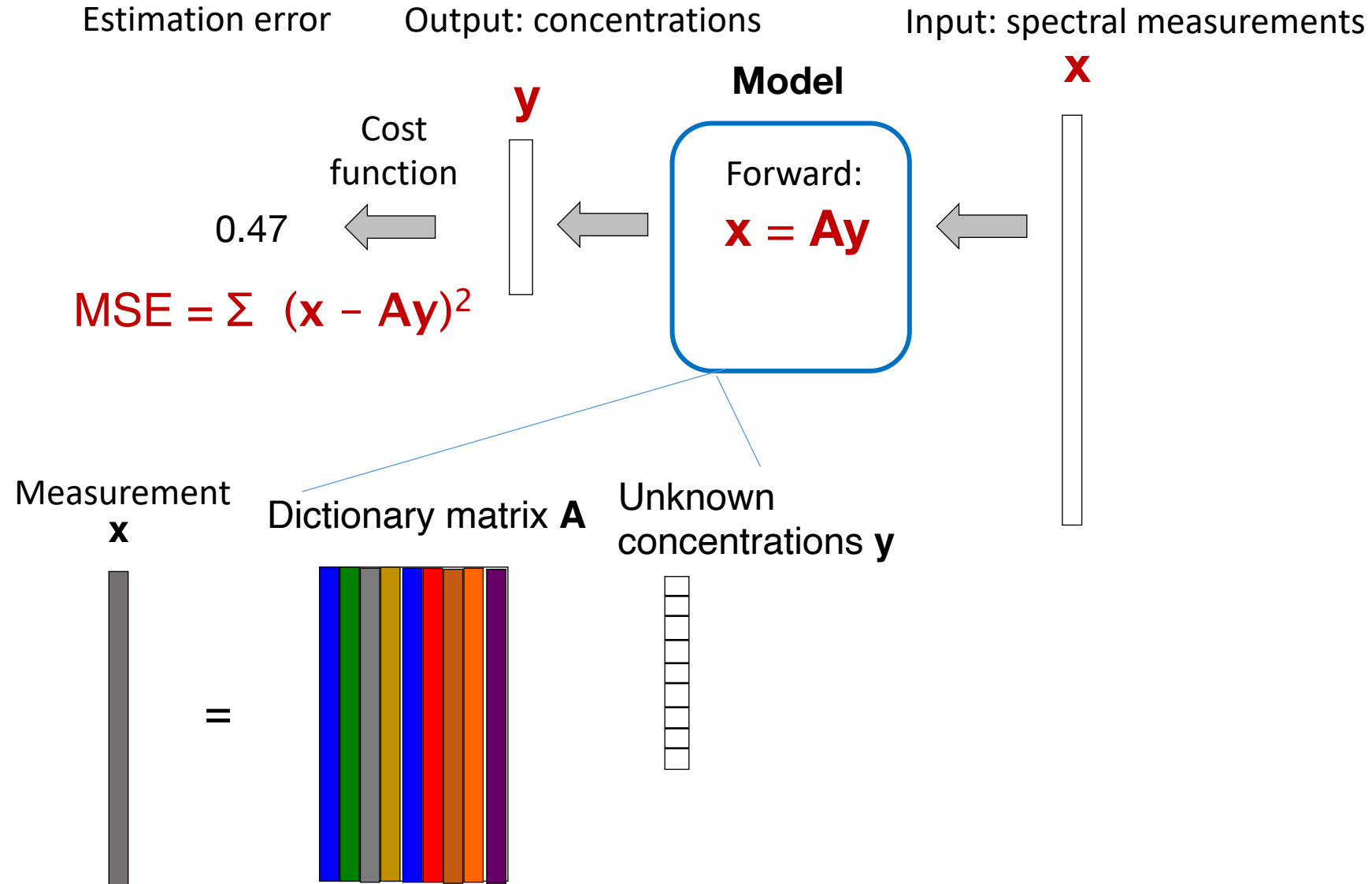
$$\boxed{(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}^*}$$

"Moore-Penrose Pseudo-inverse"

W

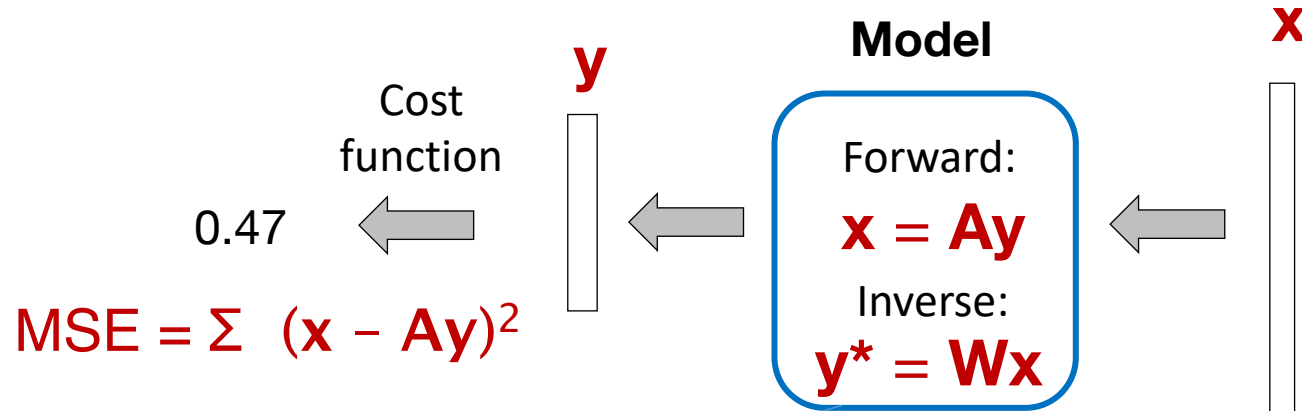
(Note: setting gradient to 0 and solving is hard to do for non-linear problems...)

Optimization pipeline for spectral unmixing



Optimization pipeline for spectral unmixing

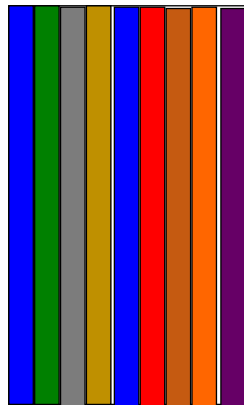
Estimation error Output: concentrations Input: spectral measurements



Measurement \mathbf{x}

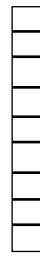


Dictionary matrix \mathbf{A}



=

Unknown concentrations \mathbf{y}

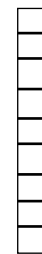


Invert via pseudo-inverse to solve for unknown output:

$$\mathbf{W} = (\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}^T$$

$$\mathbf{y}^* = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}$$

Estimate \mathbf{y}^*



=



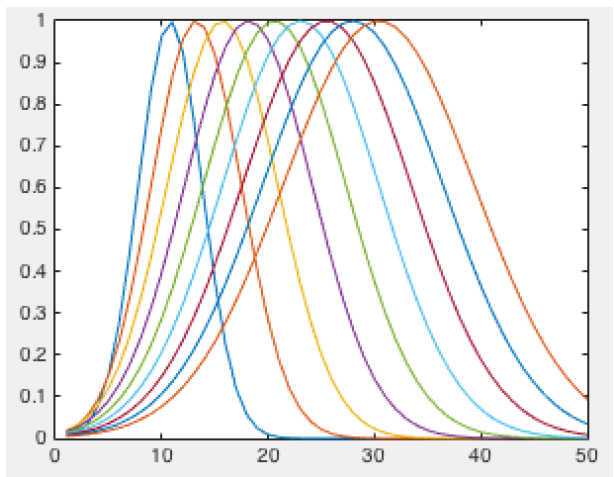
Measurement \mathbf{x}



Example unmixing with the pseudo-inverse

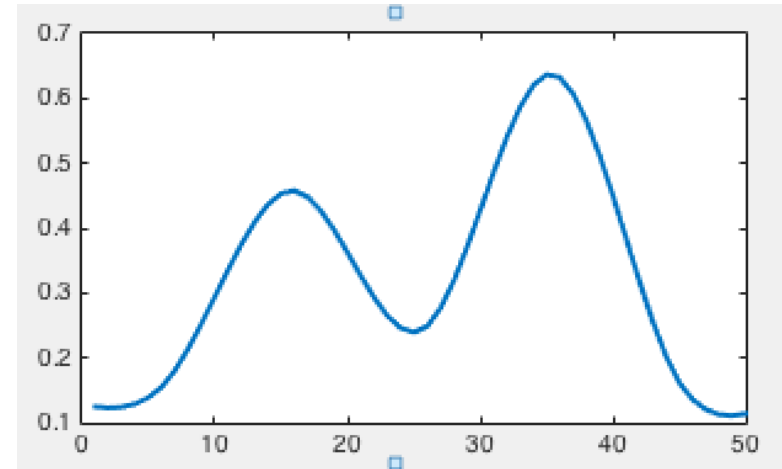
Moore-Penrose Pseudo-inverse: $y^* = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T x$

Example dictionary A
9 spectra



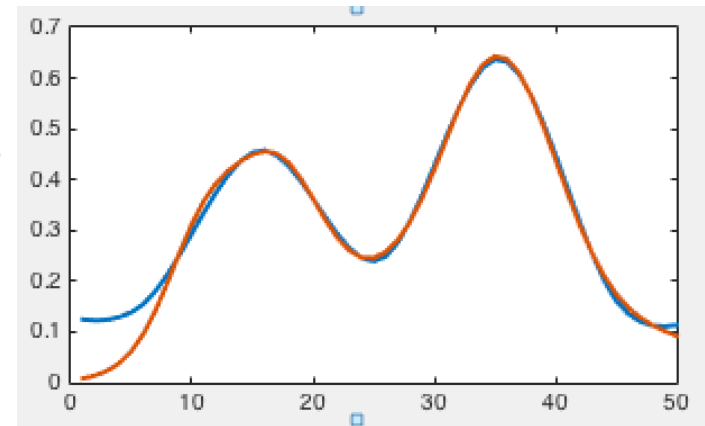
Example y,
compute Ay

Example detected spectra x



Compute pseudo-inverse,
 $x^* = Ay^*$ is red curve:

Good fit!



Example unmixing with the pseudo-inverse

Moore-Penrose Pseudo-inverse:

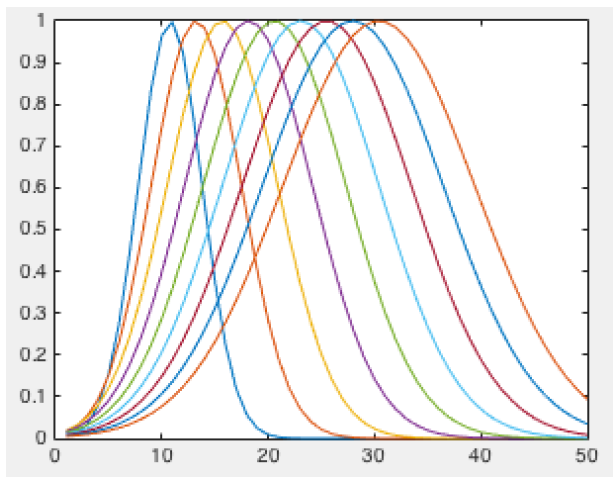
$$\mathbf{y}^* = (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{x}$$

```
n = 50; %number of pixels
m = 9; %number of spectral
A=zeros(n,m); %known dictionary of spectra
for j=1:m
    A(:,j) = exp(-(linspace(-1,1,n)+.5-.1*j+.2).^2/(.03*j));
end
%Simulate some spectra
b = imresize(rand([5,1]),[n 1]);
x_opt = A\b; ← Pseudo-inverse = one line
%Show results
figure;plot(b); hold all; plot(A*x_opt);
```


Example unmixing with the pseudo-inverse

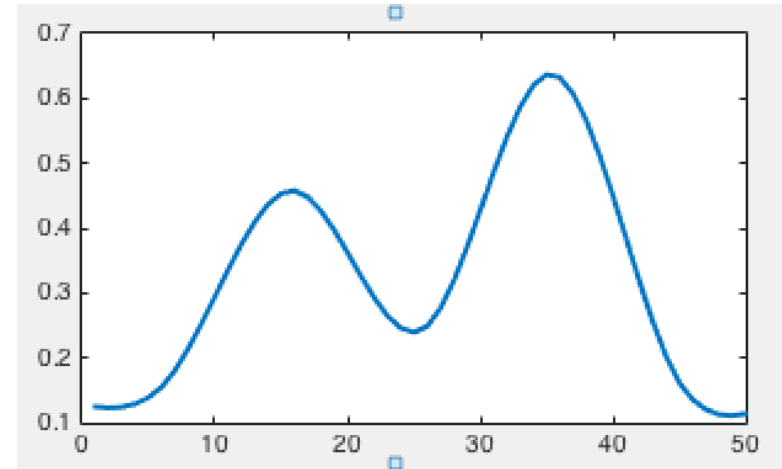
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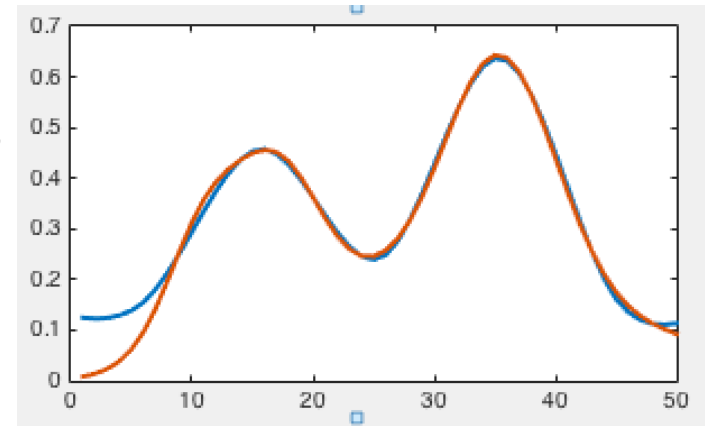
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Natural question – when can't we exactly solve for x from $Ay=x$?

Example 1: A represents an under-determined set of equations:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Natural question – when can't we exactly solve for x from $Ay=x?$

Example 1: A represents an under-determined set of equations:

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{A} = [1 \ 1 \ 1] \\ \quad [1 \ 1 \ 1] \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{x} = [1 \ 0] \\ \mathbf{y} = [a \ b \ c] \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Solve for } a, b \text{ and } c: \\ \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} a + b + c = 1 \\ a + b + c = 0 \end{array} \quad \textit{Infinite solutions exist}$$

Example 2: A represents an over-determined set of equations:

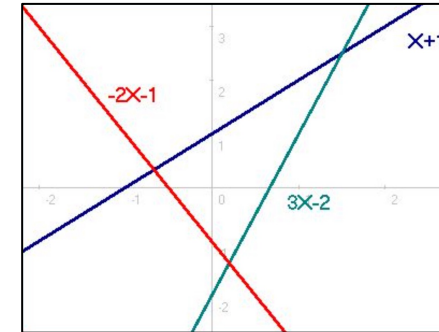
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 \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \end{bmatrix}
 \end{array}
 \quad \text{Solve for } a, b \text{ and } c: \quad \begin{array}{l} a + b + c = 1 \\ a + b + c = 0 \end{array}
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Example 2: A represents an over-determined set of equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -3 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}
 \quad \textit{No solutions exist}$$



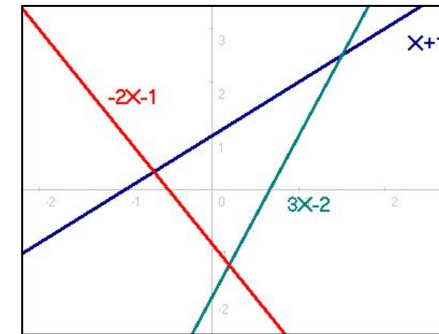
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General rule: If A is not invertible, it has a “nullspace” – a nonzero solution to $A\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ in which $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$

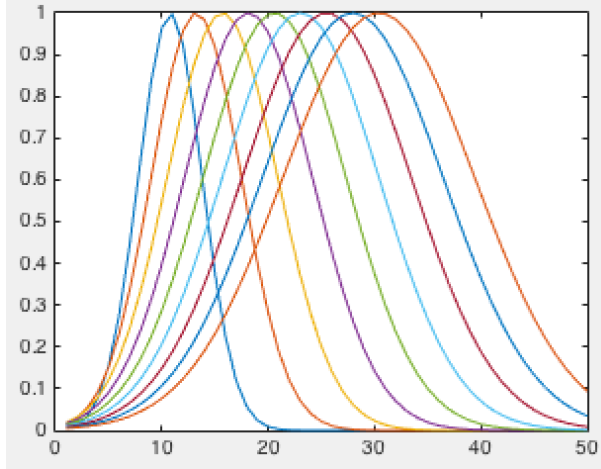
If that is the case, then it is generally challenging to invert $x=Ay$ for y , given x .

For more detail: See *Introduction to Linear Algebra*, Gilbert Strang, Chapters 2.3, 3.2, 3.4, 4.3

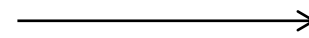
Example un-mixing with the pseudo-inverse

Moore-Penrose Pseudo-inverse:
$$\mathbf{y}^* = (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{x}$$

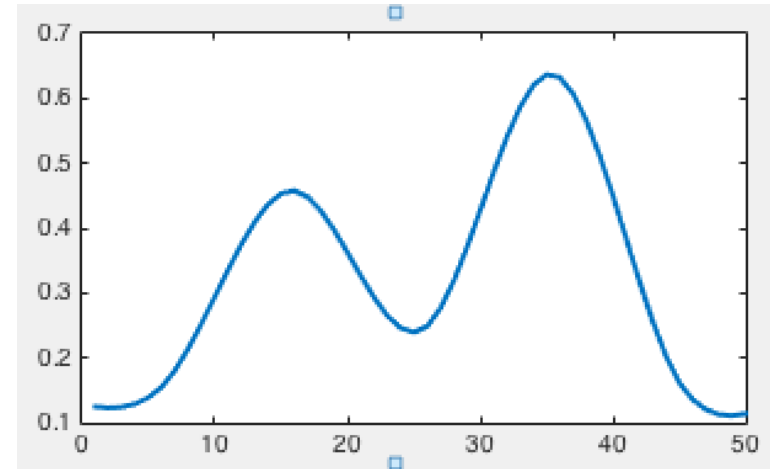
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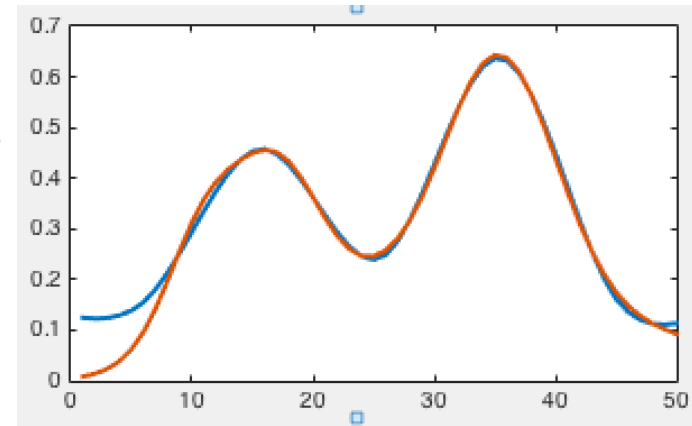


Example detected spectra x



Compute pseudo-inverse,
 $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}^*$ is red curve:

Good fit!



PROBLEM:
 $\mathbf{y}^* = [0.2, -1.1, -1.6, \dots]$
 Solution has negative weights!
 Negative light not physically possible...

Spectral un-mixing with a positivity constraint

Option 1: Add a constraint

Minimize $f(\mathbf{y}) = \sum (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})^2$ Convex cost function

Subject to $\mathbf{y} \geq 0$ Convex constraint

*When you have constraints, can use **CVX**, convex toolbox for Matlab

<http://cvxr.com/cvx/>

Spectral un-mixing with a positivity constraint

Option 1: Add a constraint

```
%%%%%%%%%%  
addpath '/users/Roarke/Documents/Matlab/cvx'; cvx_setup;  
cvx_begin  
    variable xc(m);  
    minimize( norm(A*xc-b) );  
    subject to  
        xc >= 0;  
cvx_end  
%Show results  
figure;plot(b); hold all; plot(A*xc);  
%%%%%%%%%%
```


Spectral un-mixing with a positivity constraint

Option 1: Add a constraint

```
%%%%%%%%%%
addpath '/users/Roarke/Documents/Matlab/cvx'; cvx_setup;
cvx_begin
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    minimize( norm(A*xc-b) ); Vector Norm:  $\sqrt{\sum (Ax_c - b)^2}$ 
    subject to
        xc >= 0;
cvx_end
>Show results
figure;plot(b); hold all; plot(A*xc);
%%%%%%%%%%
```

Vector Norms – a quick aside

DEF: A norm is a function $\|\cdot\|: R^n \rightarrow R$ that satisfies

- (1) $\|x\| \geq 0$, and $\|x\| = 0$ only if $x = 0$,
- (2) $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$,
- (3) $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$.

Important Norms:

$$\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^m |x_i|,$$

$$\|x\|_2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} = \sqrt{x^*x},$$

$$\|x\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} |x_i|,$$

$$\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} \quad (1 \leq p < \infty).$$

Example:

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\|x\|_1 = 10$$

$$\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{4 + 25 + 9} \approx 6.1644$$

$$\|x\|_\infty = 5$$

$$\|x\|_p = \sqrt[p]{2^p + 5^p + 3^p}$$

Spectral un-mixing with a positivity constraint

Option 1: Add a constraint

Minimize $f(\mathbf{y}) = \sum (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})^2$

Convex cost function

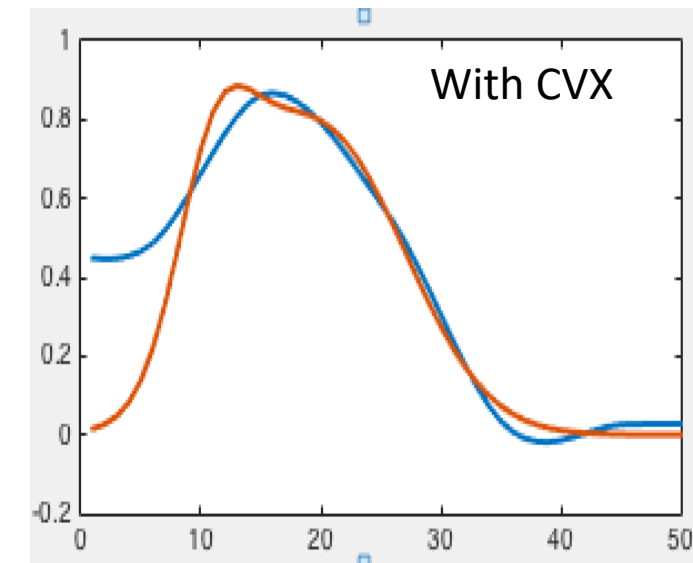
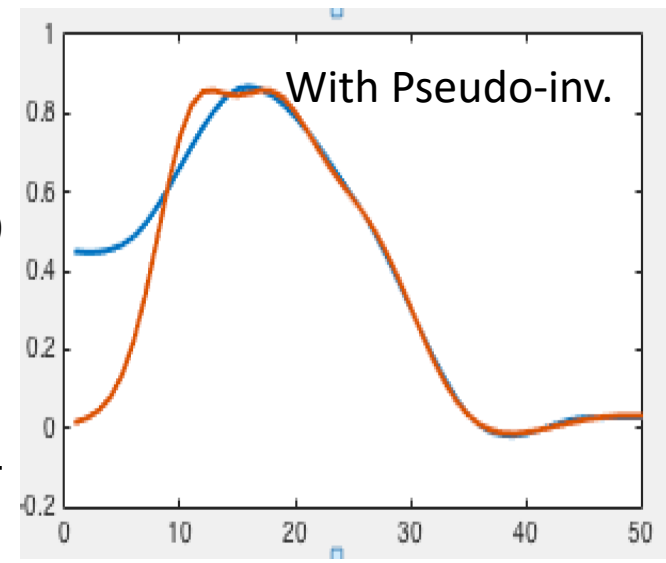
Subject to $\mathbf{y} \geq 0$

Convex constraint

*When you have constraints, can use **CVX**, convex toolbox for Matlab

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\mathbf{y}^*
 0.6683
 -1.5880
 5.7848
 -11.7459
 17.9304
 -20.1231
 18.3572
 -10.7984
 2.8557



\mathbf{y}^*
 0.3612
 0.2238
 0.0006
 0.0000
 0.7336
 0.0000
 0.0000
 0.0000
 0.0000
 0.0000

Spectral un-mixing with a positivity constraint

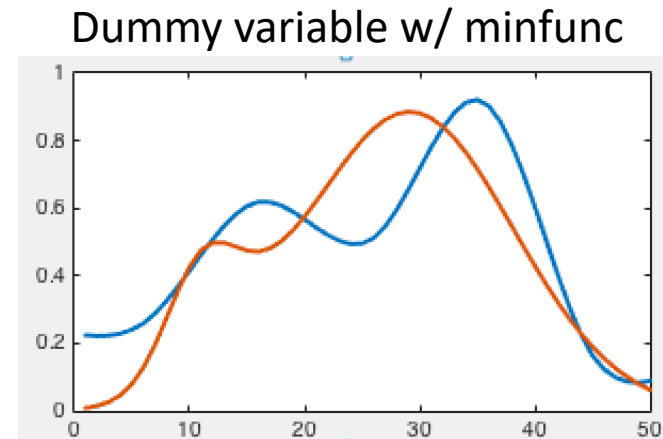
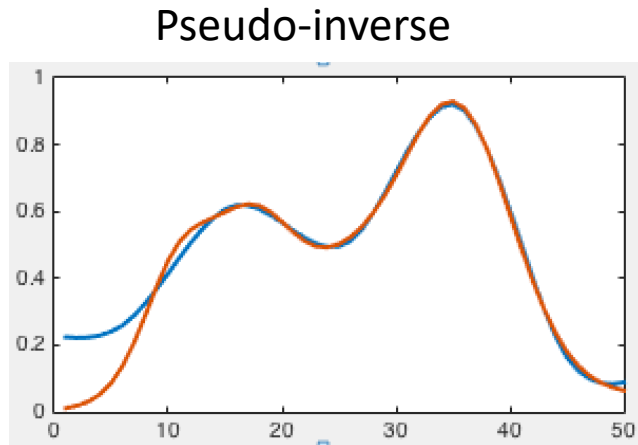
Option 2: Modify cost function

Minimize $f(\mathbf{z}) = \sum (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{Az}^2)^2$

$\mathbf{z}^2 = \mathbf{y}$ is dummy variable, will change cost function and gradient

*When you don't have constraints but can find the gradient, use **Minfunc**

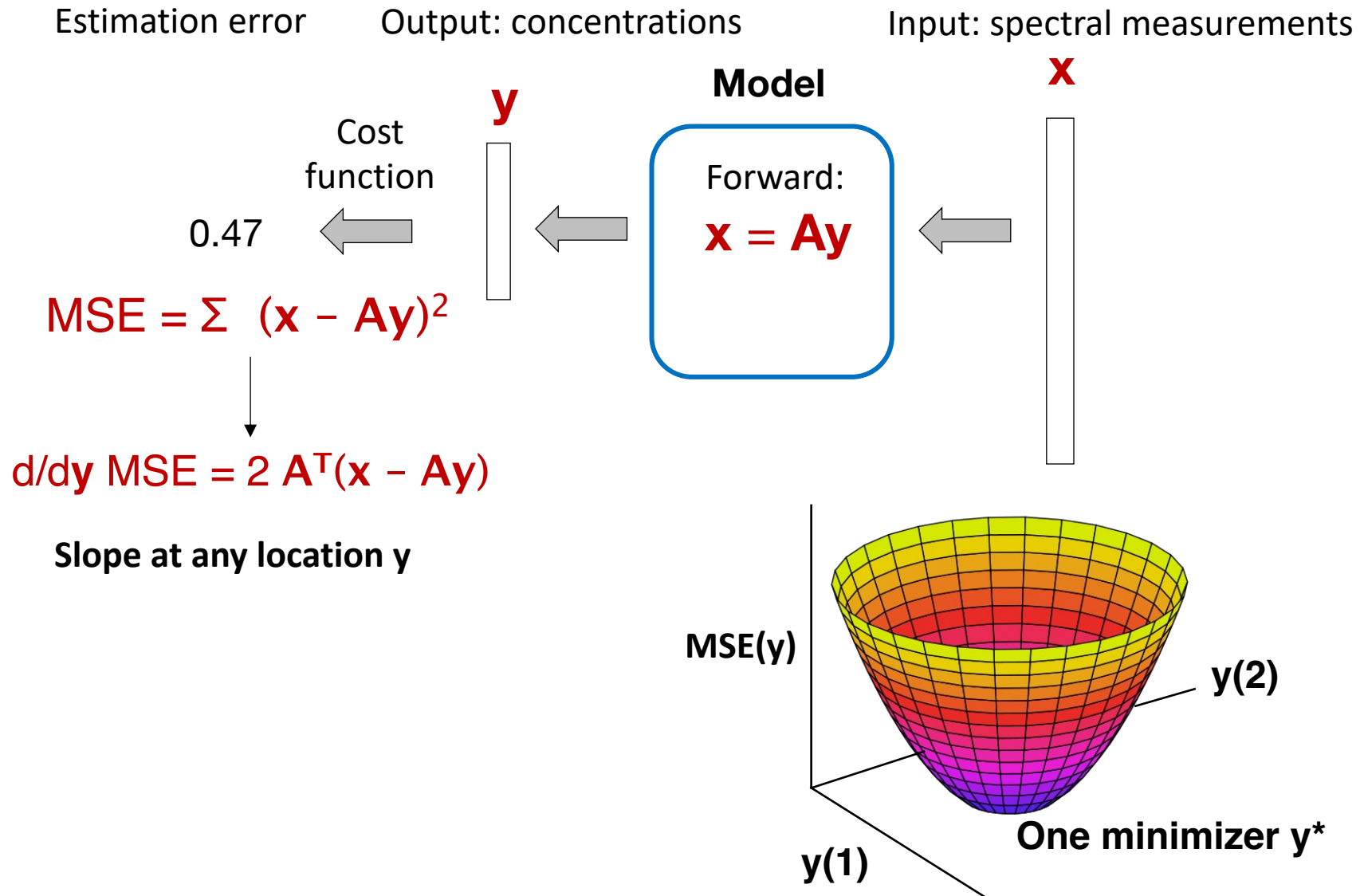
<https://www.cs.ubc.ca/~schmidtm/Software/minFunc.html>



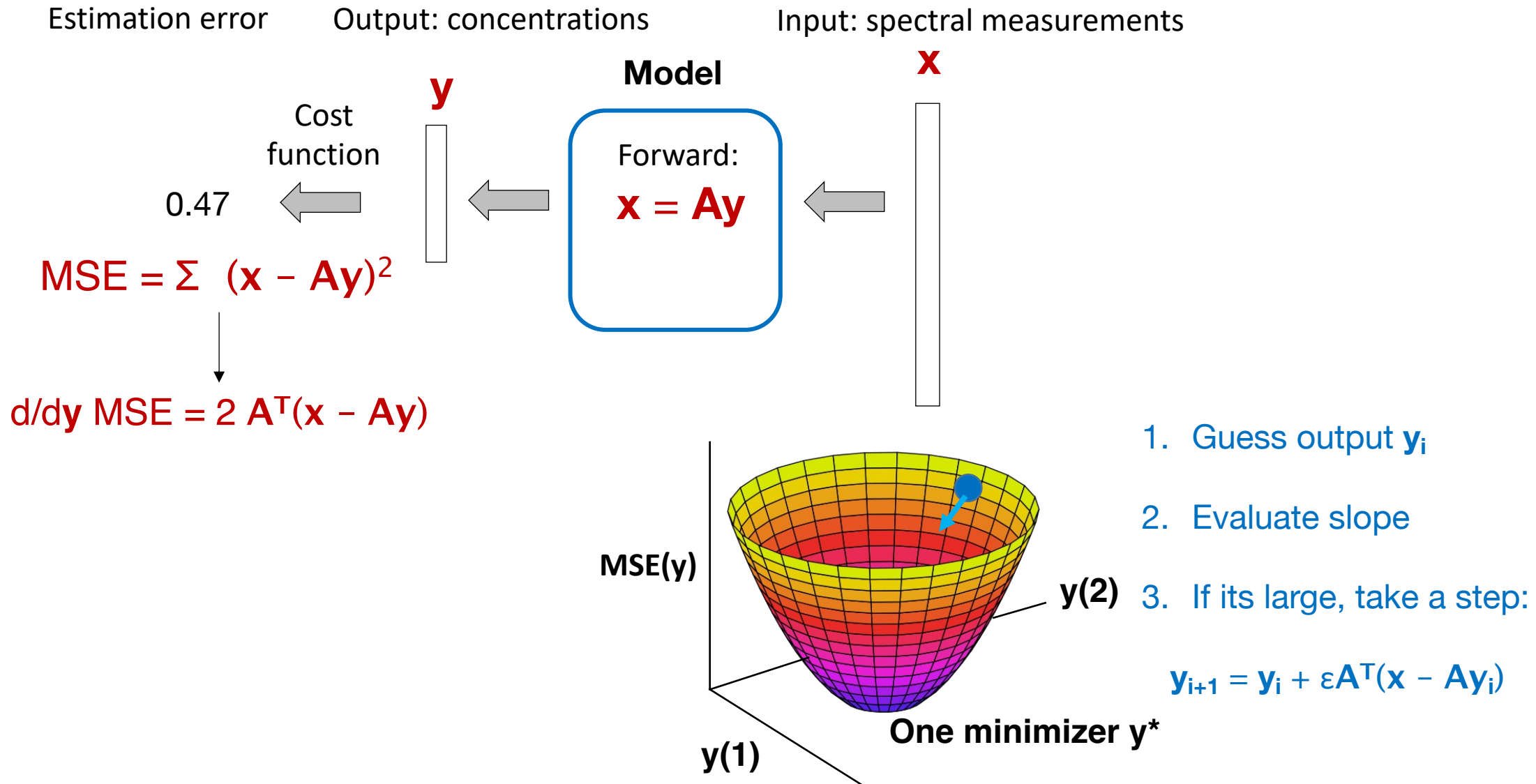
\mathbf{y}^*
 0.5013
 0.3345
 0.1811
 0.0367
 0.0132
 0.0705
 0.2626
 0.5080
 0.7539

Not working too well, gradient could be wrong?

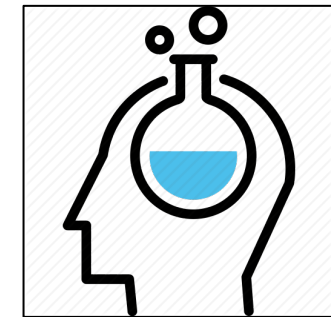
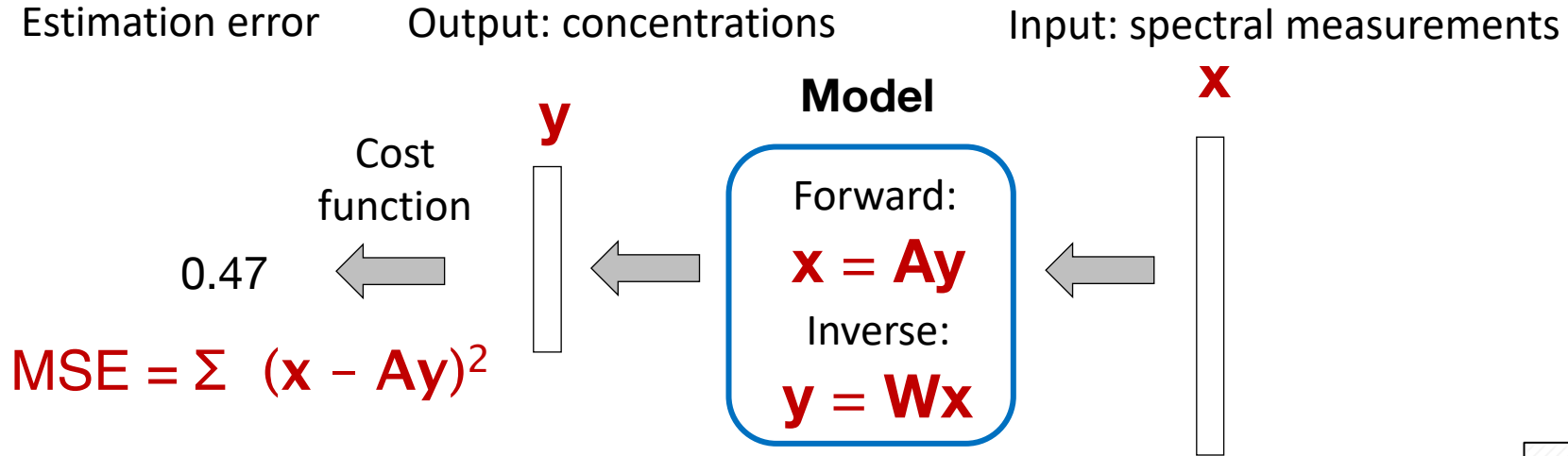
More typical strategy to solve for y^* : gradient descent



More typical strategy to solve for y^* : gradient descent



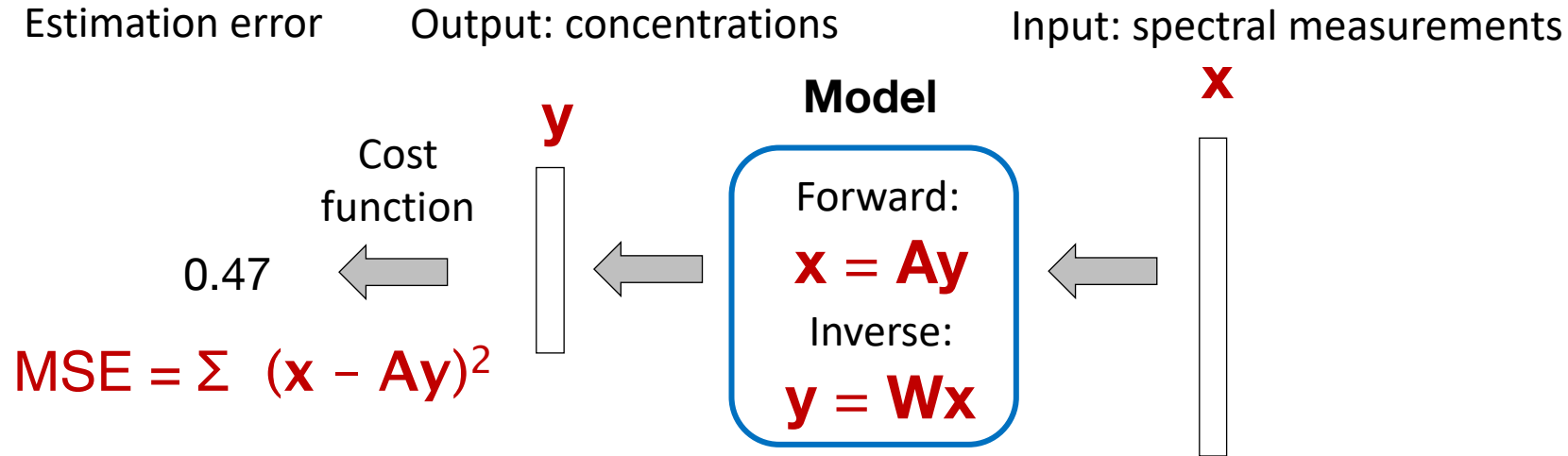
Optimization pipeline for spectral unmixing



A and **W** from first principles

Optimization: You only care about finding the best solution **y***

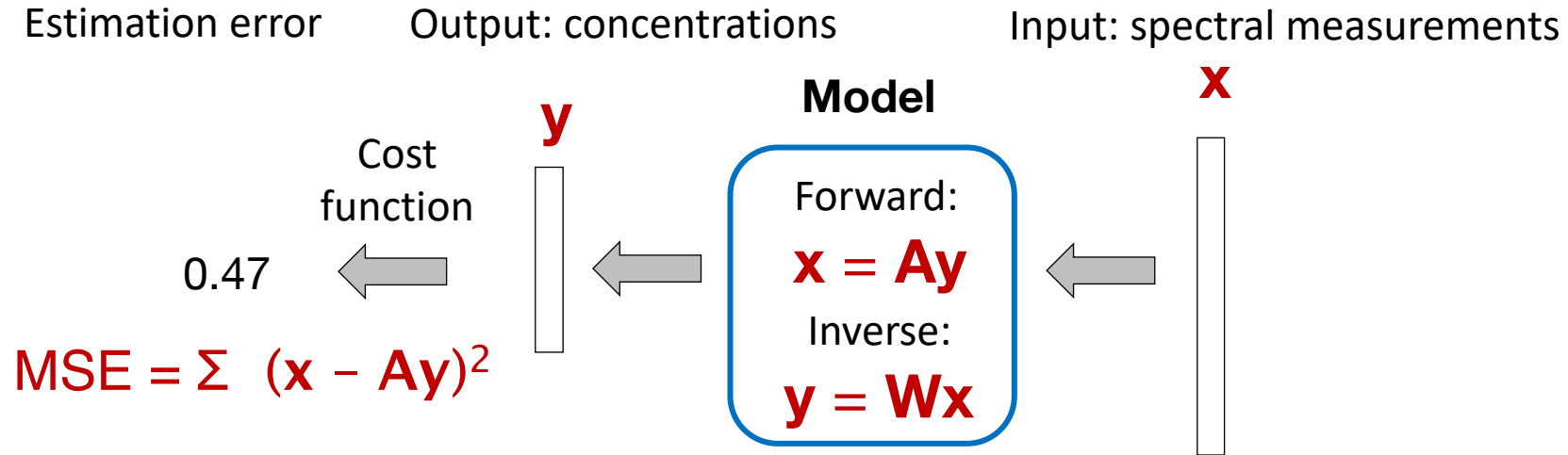
Optimization pipeline for spectral unmixing



Machine Learning: You don't know what A and W are!

- You do not have access to known forward or inverse models
- But, example (input, output) data is available to try to figure it out

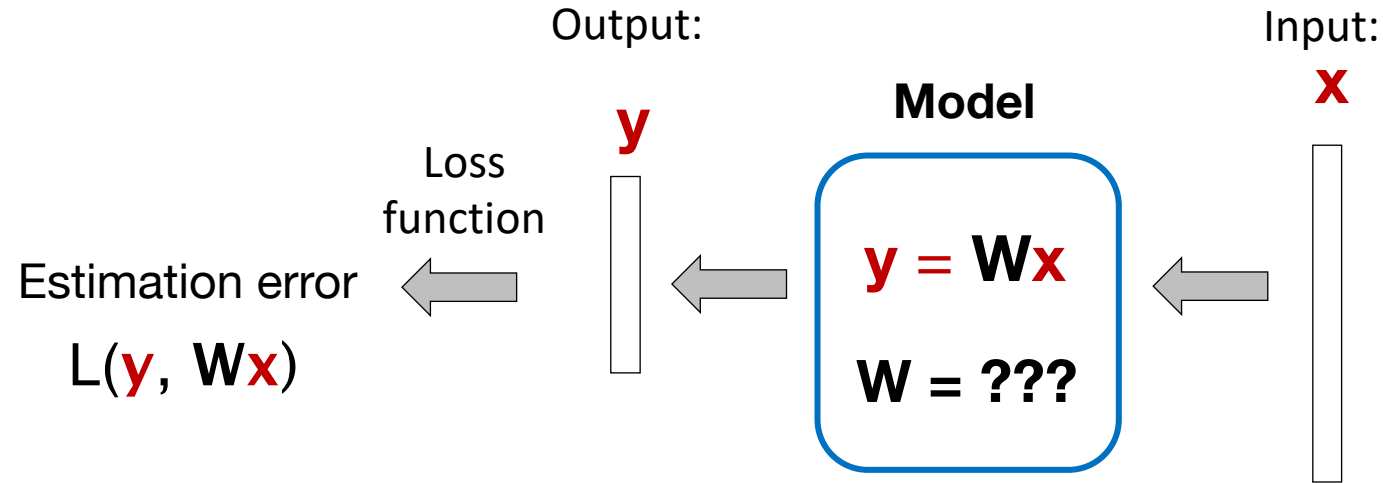
Optimization pipeline for spectral unmixing



Optimization: You only care about finding the best solution \mathbf{y}^*

Machine Learning: You first care about finding the model \mathbf{W} , then you'll use that to find the best solution \mathbf{y}^*

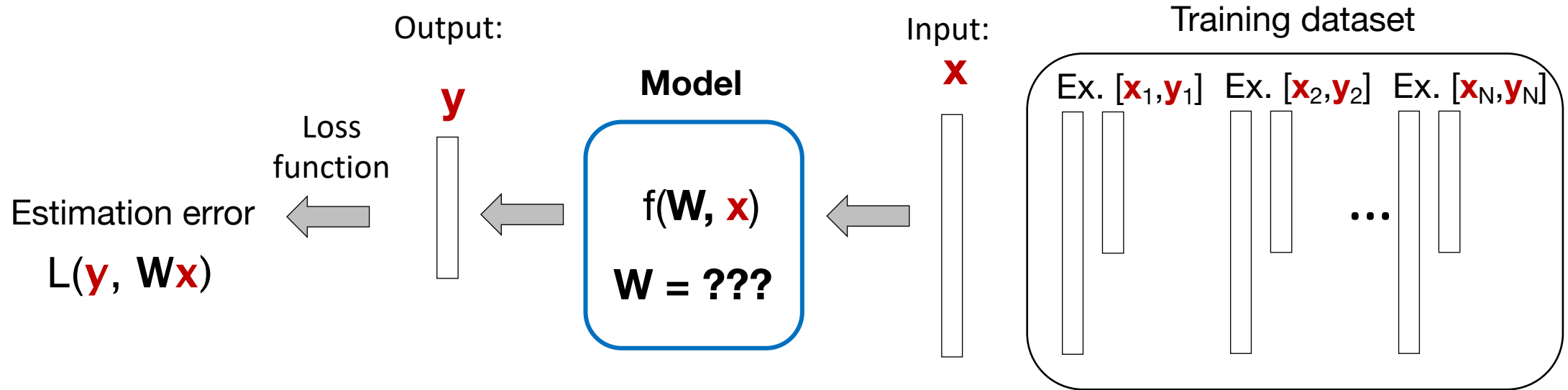
Pipeline for machine learning



Changes for machine learning framework:

1. Now must establish the mapping from inputs to outputs (here, matrix W)

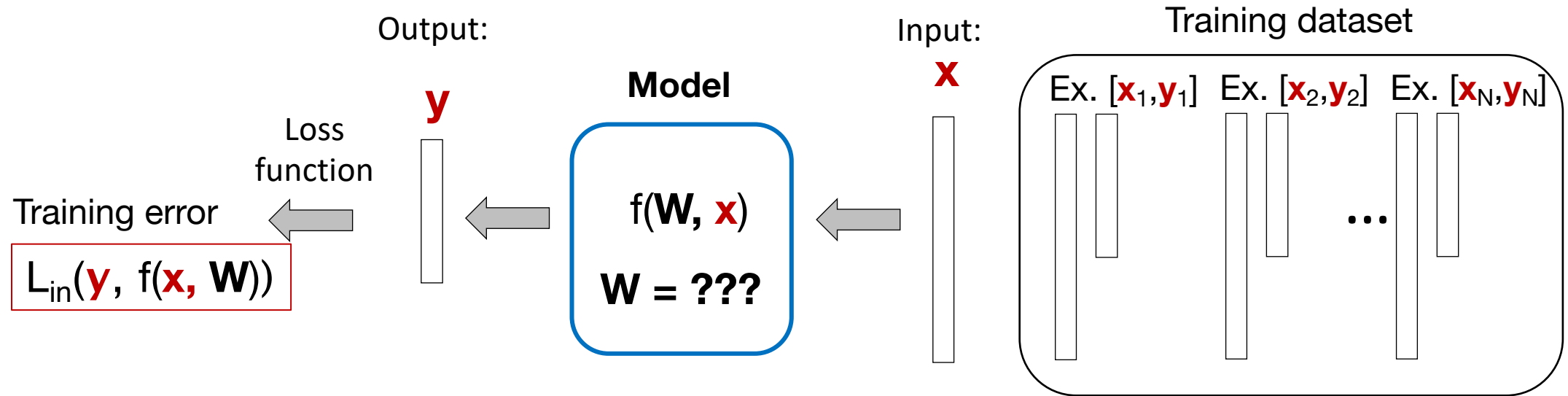
Pipeline for machine learning



Changes for machine learning framework:

1. Now must establish the mapping from inputs to outputs (here, matrix \mathbf{W})
2. Using large set of “training” data to first determine mapping $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{W}) = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}$

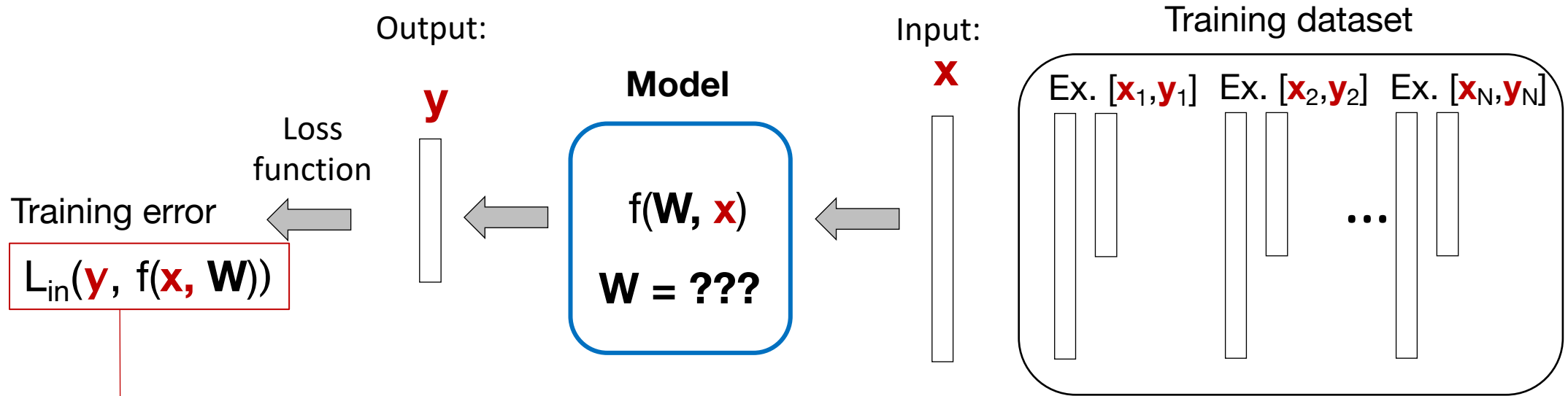
Pipeline for machine learning



Changes for machine learning framework:

1. Now must establish the mapping from inputs to outputs (here, matrix W)
2. Using large set of “training” data to first determine mapping $f(x, W) = Wx$
3. To do so, use a *loss function* L that depends upon the training inputs (x, y) and the model (W)

Pipeline for machine learning

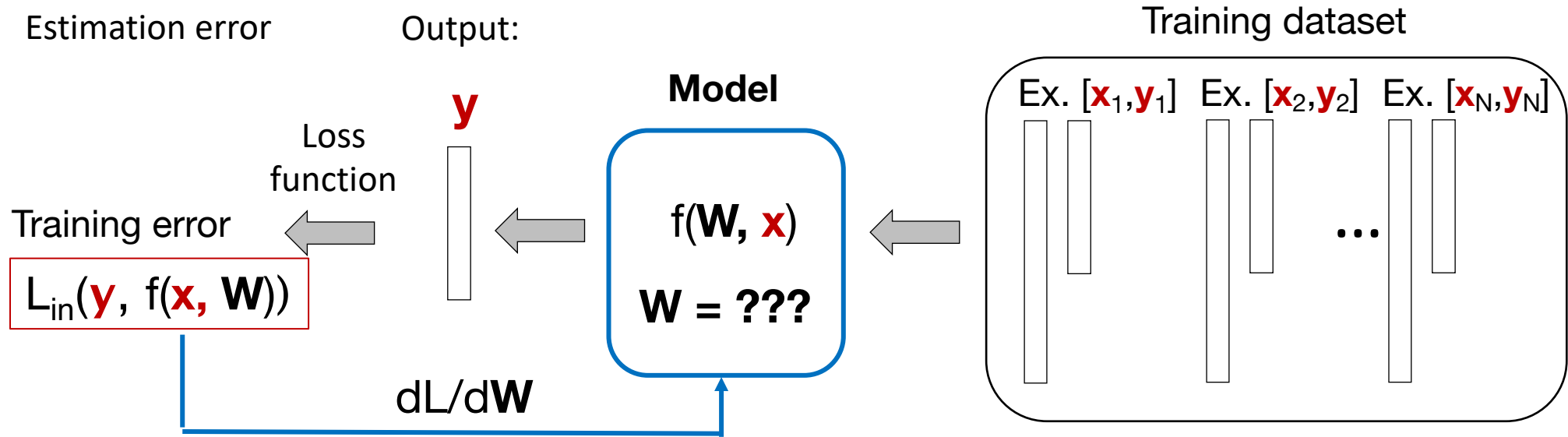


Training Error (“in class error”):

- L_{in} compares modeled output, $f(x_i, \mathbf{W})$, with the *correct* output that has been *labeled*
- Assume error caused by each labeled example is equally important and sum them up:

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L_i(f(x_i, \mathbf{W}), y_i)$$

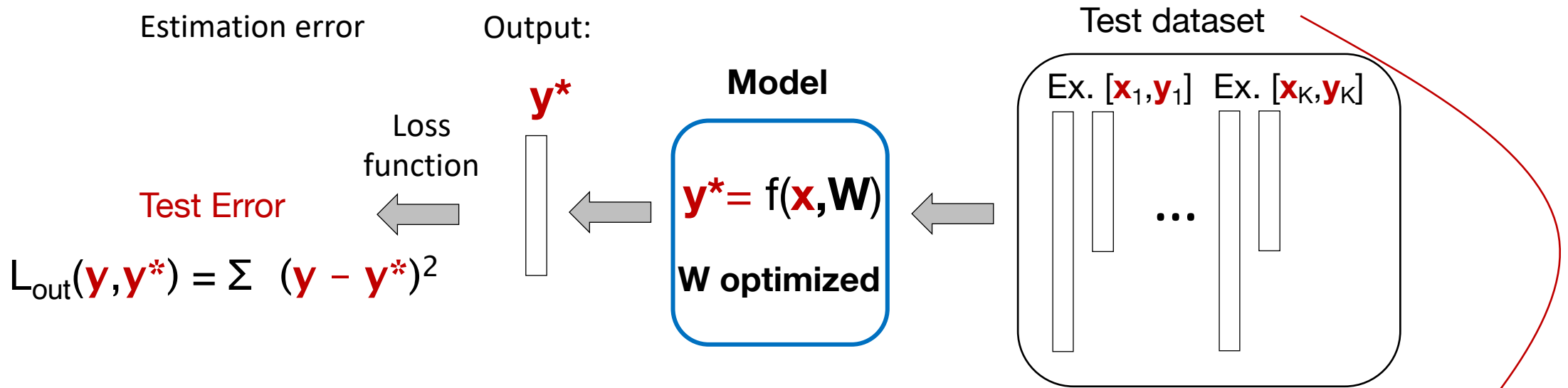
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1. Now must establish the mapping from inputs to outputs (here, matrix \mathbf{W})
2. Using large set of “training” data to first determine mapping $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{W}) = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}$
3. To do so, use a *loss function* L that depends upon the training inputs (x,y) and the model (\mathbf{W})
4. Find optimal mapping (\mathbf{W}) using the training data, guided by gradient descent on L

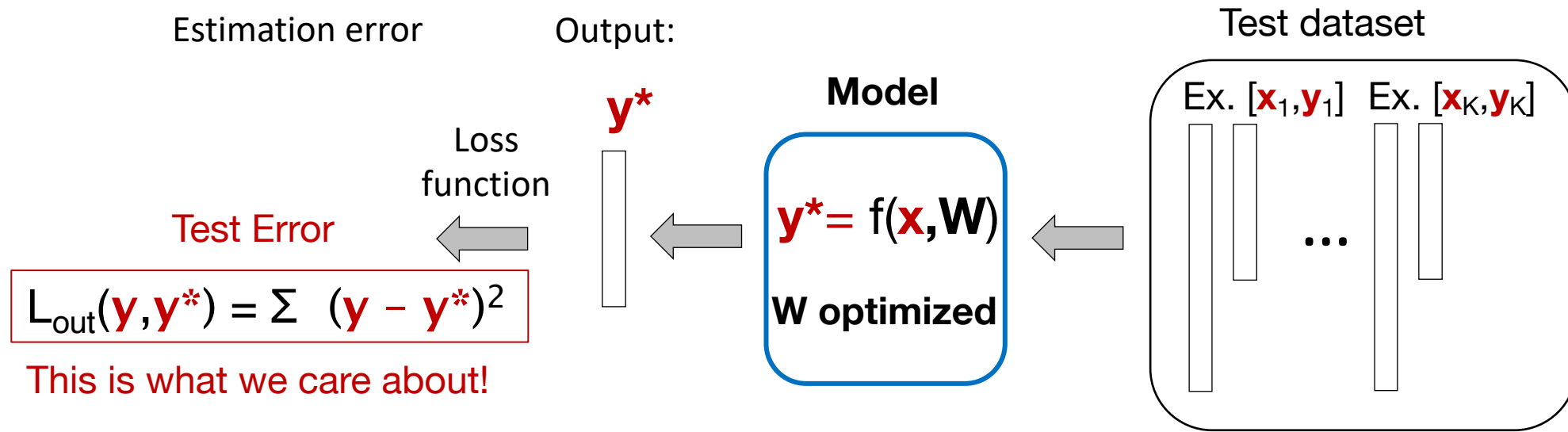
Pipeline for machine learning



In a *separate step*, we then need to do the following to test the network:

1. evaluate model accuracy by sending *new* \mathbf{x} through – need *new, unique* data with label

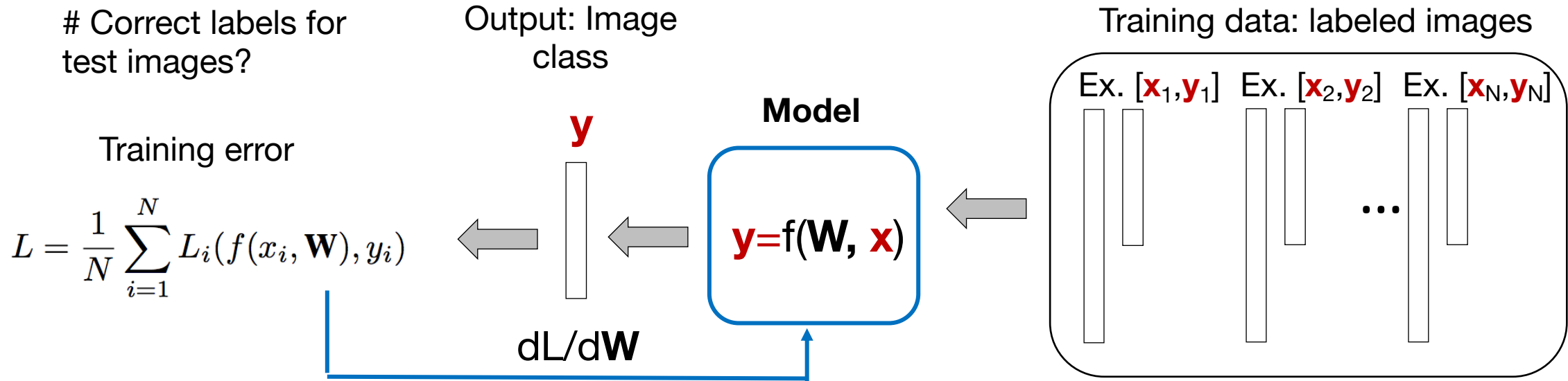
Pipeline for machine learning



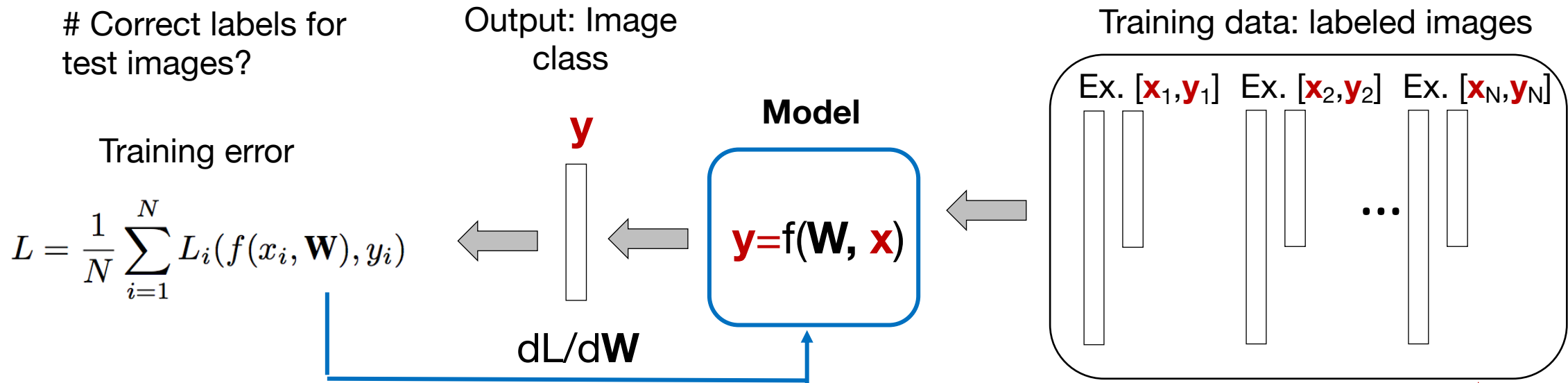
In a *separate step*, we then need to do the following to test the network:

1. evaluate model accuracy by sending *new* x through – need *new, unique data with label*
2. Compare output y^* to known “test data” label y
3. Evaluate performance with an error equation L_{out}

Example: machine learning for image classification



Example: machine learning for image classification



Let's consider a simple example – image classification. What do we need for training?

1. Labeled examples

$$\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$$

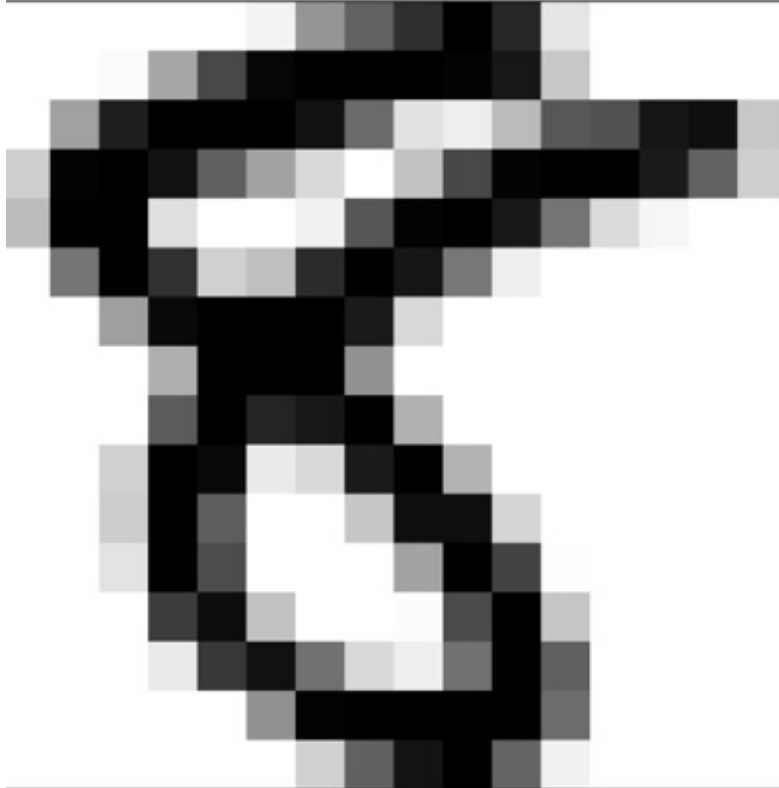
Example: machine learning for image classification



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/MNIST_database

MNIST image set: <http://yann.lecun.com/exdb/mnist/>

Example: MNIST image dataset



\mathbf{X} = 28x28 pixel matrix

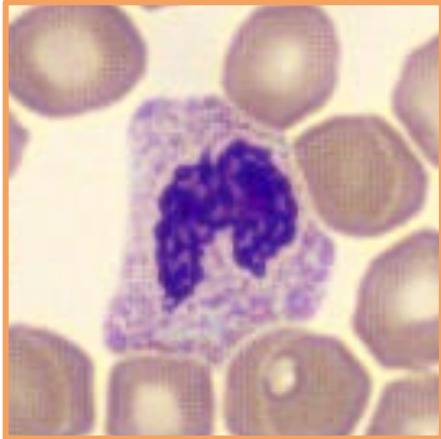
$\mathbf{x} = \text{vec}[\mathbf{X}] = 784\text{-long vector}$

Linear model would require $W = 784$ element matrix

Start simple: use $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, x_1, x_2)$ to describe **intensity** and **symmetry** of image X

Linear model can now use smaller $w = (w_0, w_1, w_2)$

Example images for later in the class: blood cells



$\mathbf{X} = 384 \times 384 \times 3$ pixel matrix

(3rd matrix dimension is Red, Green or Blue pixel values)

$\mathbf{x} = \text{vec}[\mathbf{M}] = 442,368$ -long vector

Linear model would require $W = 442,368$ element matrix

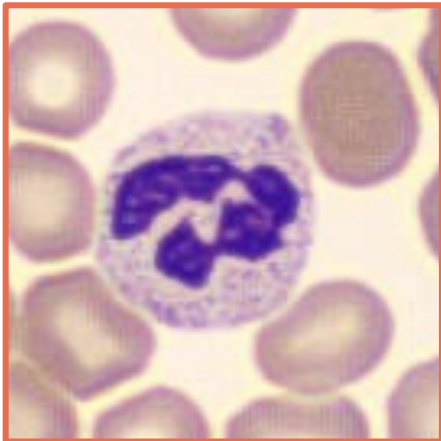


Illustration of features

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_0, x_1, x_2)$$

x_1 : intensity

x_2 : symmetry

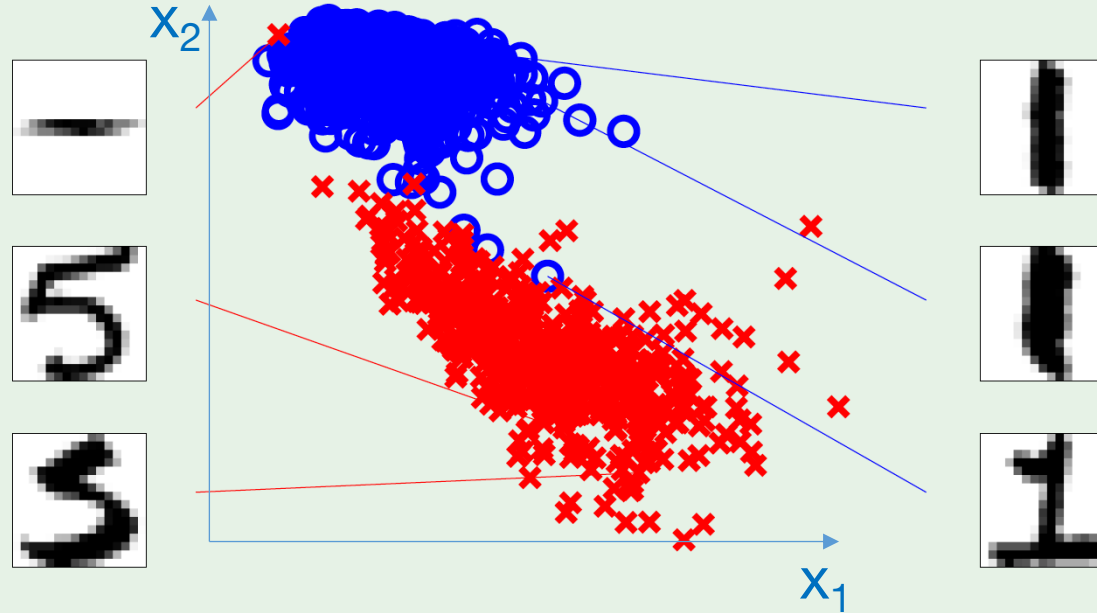
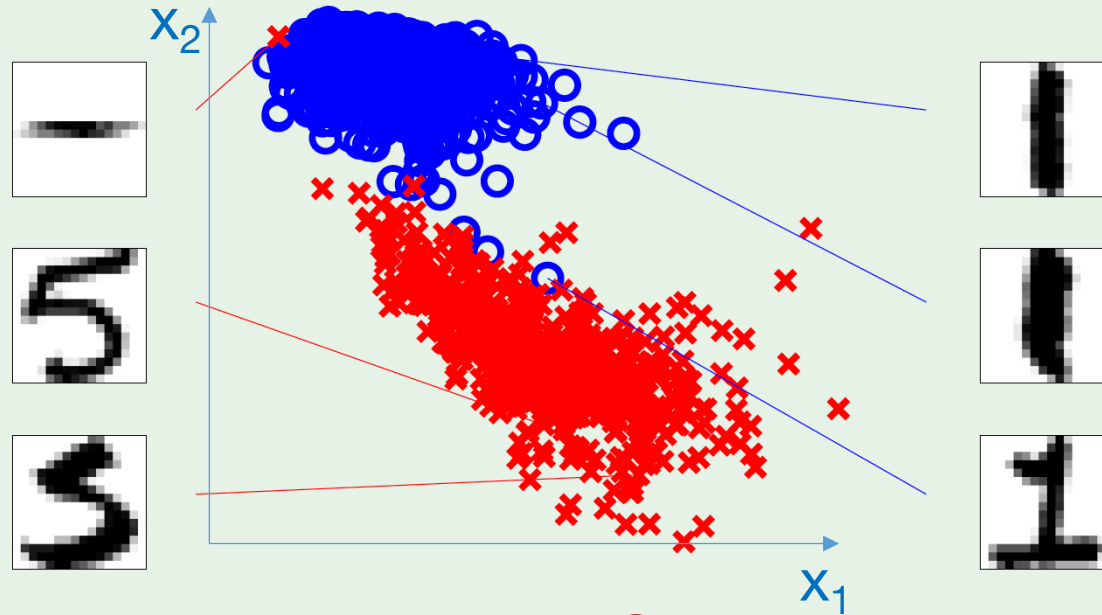


Illustration of features

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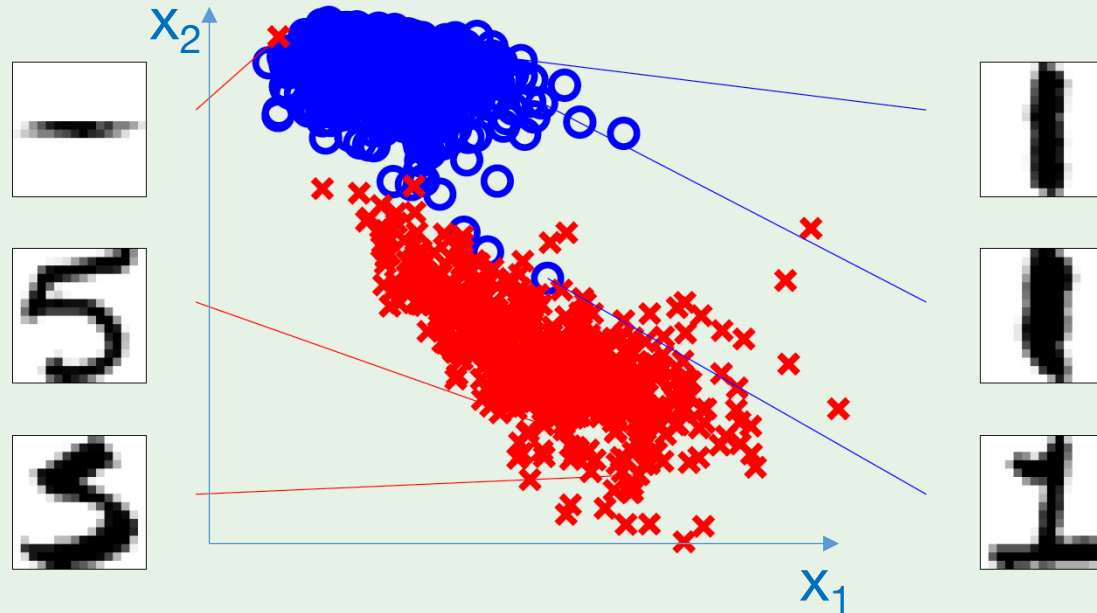
Dataset: 1000 examples of 1's and 5's mapped to $\mathbf{x}_j = (1, x_1, x_2)$, with associated label $y_j = 1$ or -1

This transforms $w\mathbf{x} + b$ into $\mathbf{w}\mathbf{x}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_0 & w_1 & w_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2$$

Illustration of features

$\mathbf{x} = (x_0, x_1, x_2)$ x_1 : intensity x_2 : symmetry

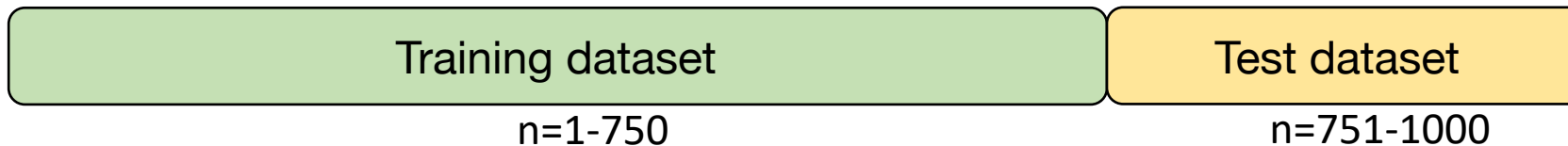


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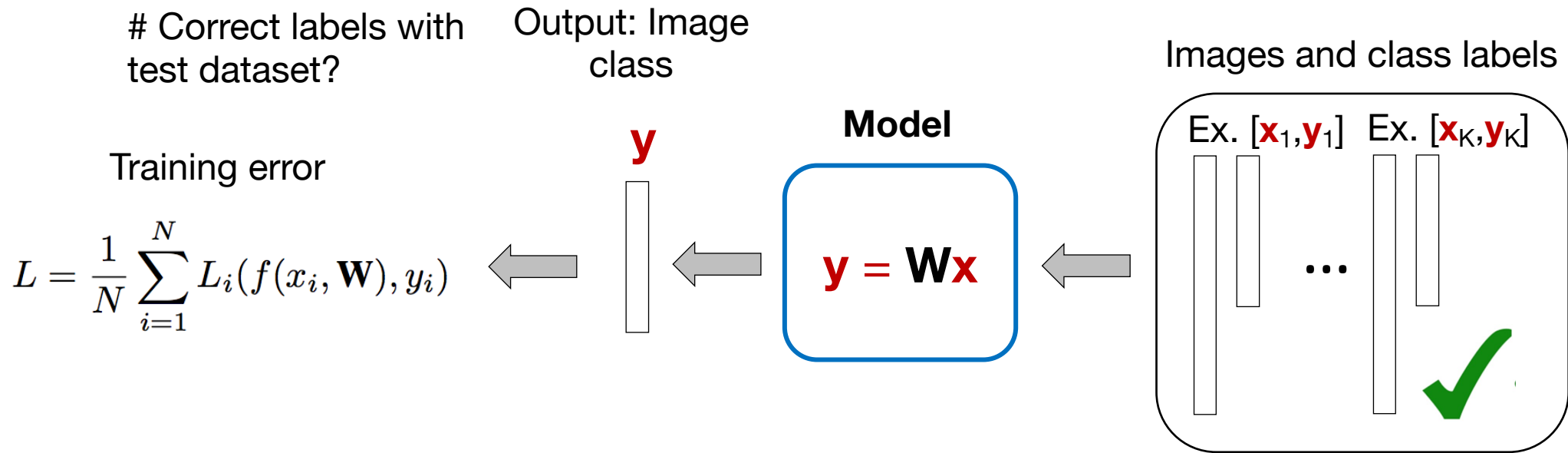
$[\mathbf{X}_{\text{train}}, \mathbf{Y}_{\text{train}}] = [\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{y}_j]$ for $n=1$ to 750

$[\mathbf{X}_{\text{test}}, \mathbf{Y}_{\text{test}}] = [\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{y}_j]$ for $n=751$ to 1000

Labeled data:



Example: machine learning for image classification



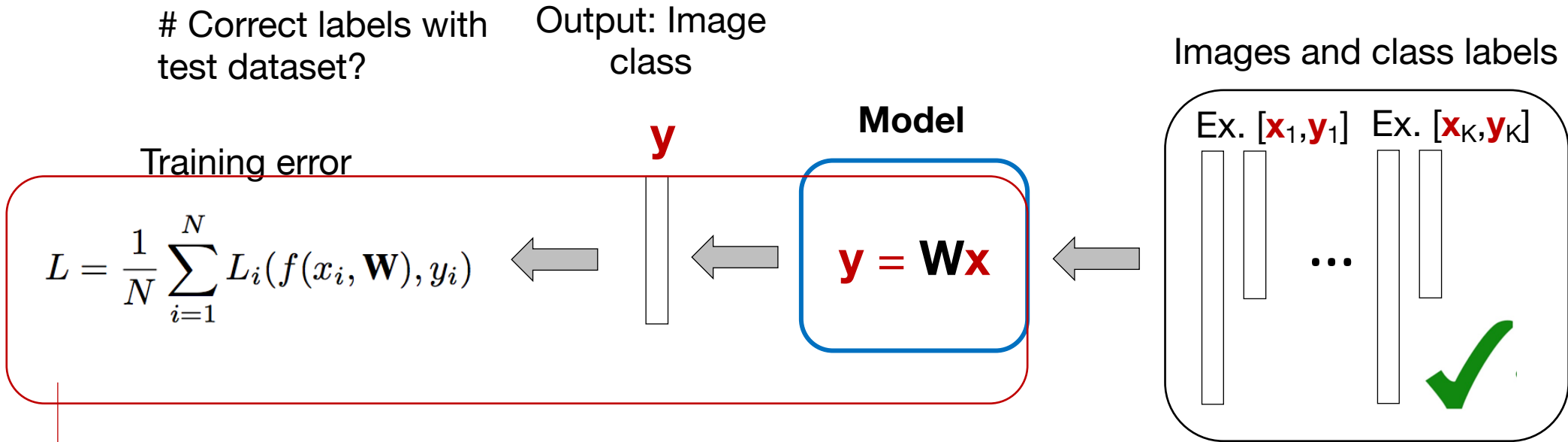
Let's consider a simple example – image classification. What do we need for training?

✓ **1. Labeled examples**

$$\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$$

2. A model and loss function

Example: machine learning for image classification



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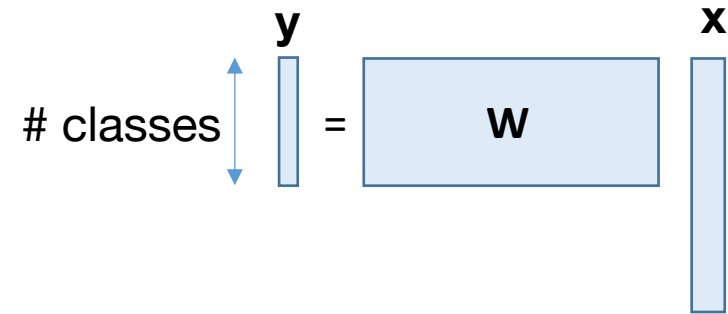
➔ **2. A model and loss function**

Let's start with a simpler approach: linear regression

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L_i(f(x_i, \mathbf{W}), y_i)$$

General linear model:

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L_i(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$$

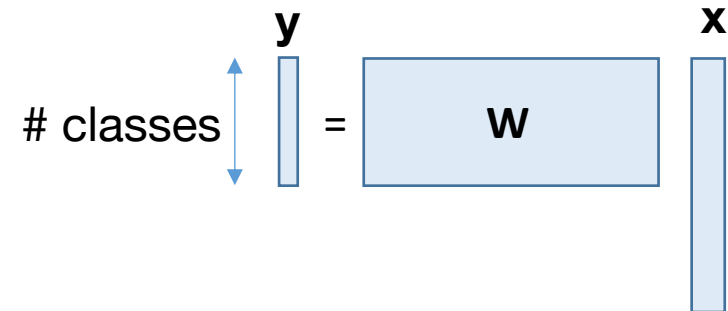


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General linear model:

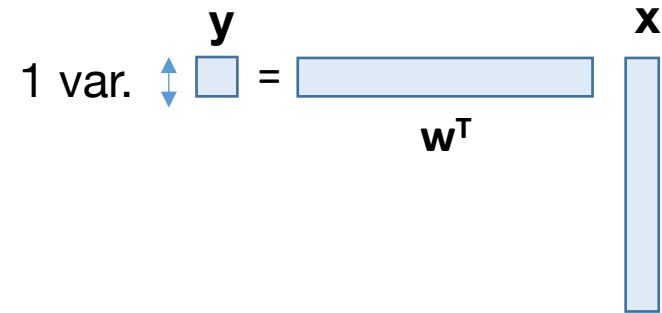
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Assume 1 class =
1 linear fit

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L_i(w^T x_i, y_i)$$

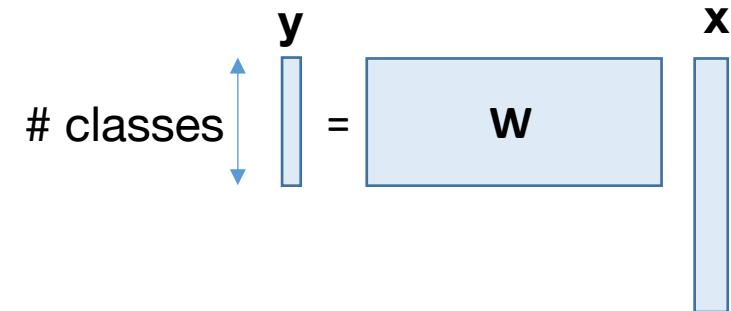


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General linear model:

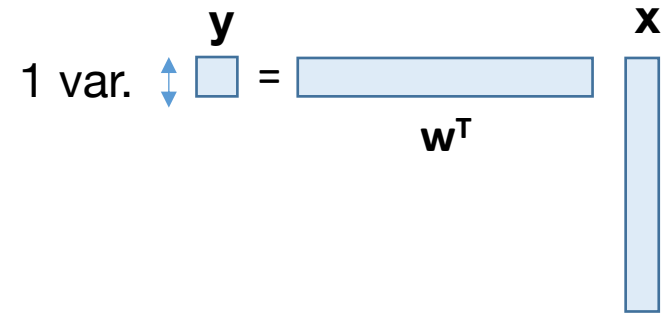
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Use MSE error model

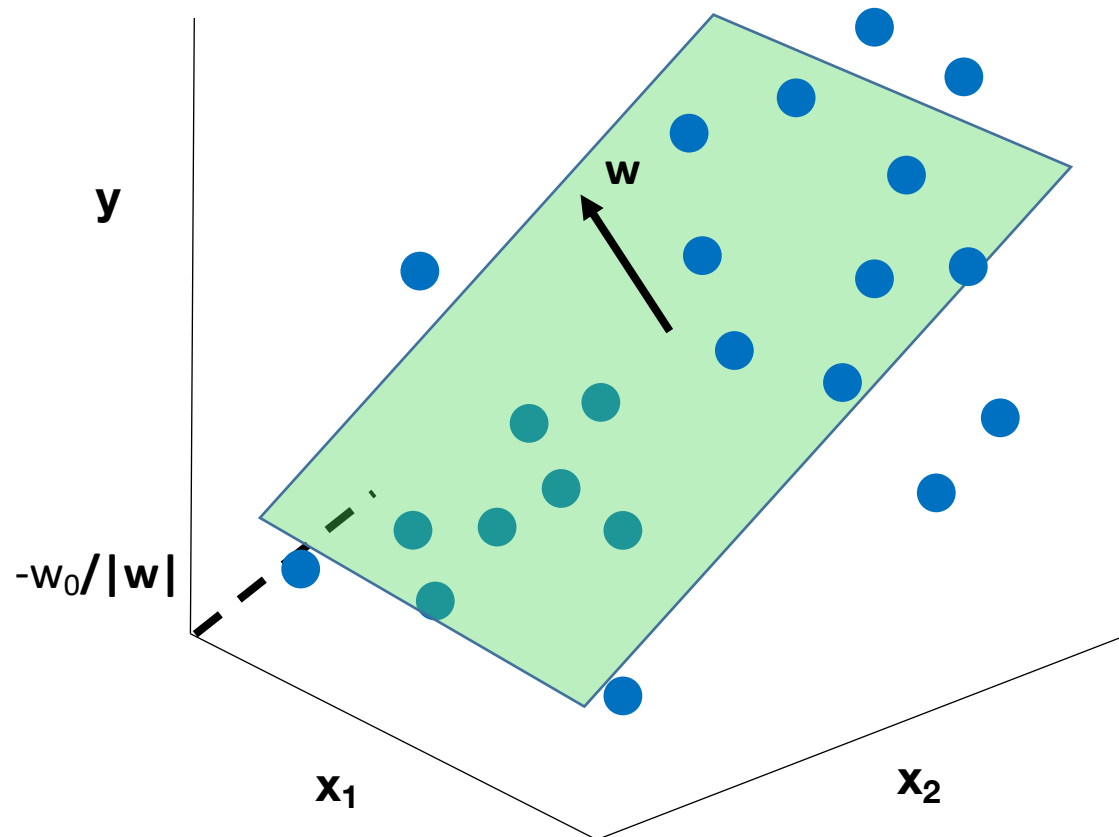
$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$$

Where labels determined by thresholding

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = y_i^* = \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$\text{sgn}(x) := \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$$

Why does linear regression with $\text{sgn}()$ achieve classification?



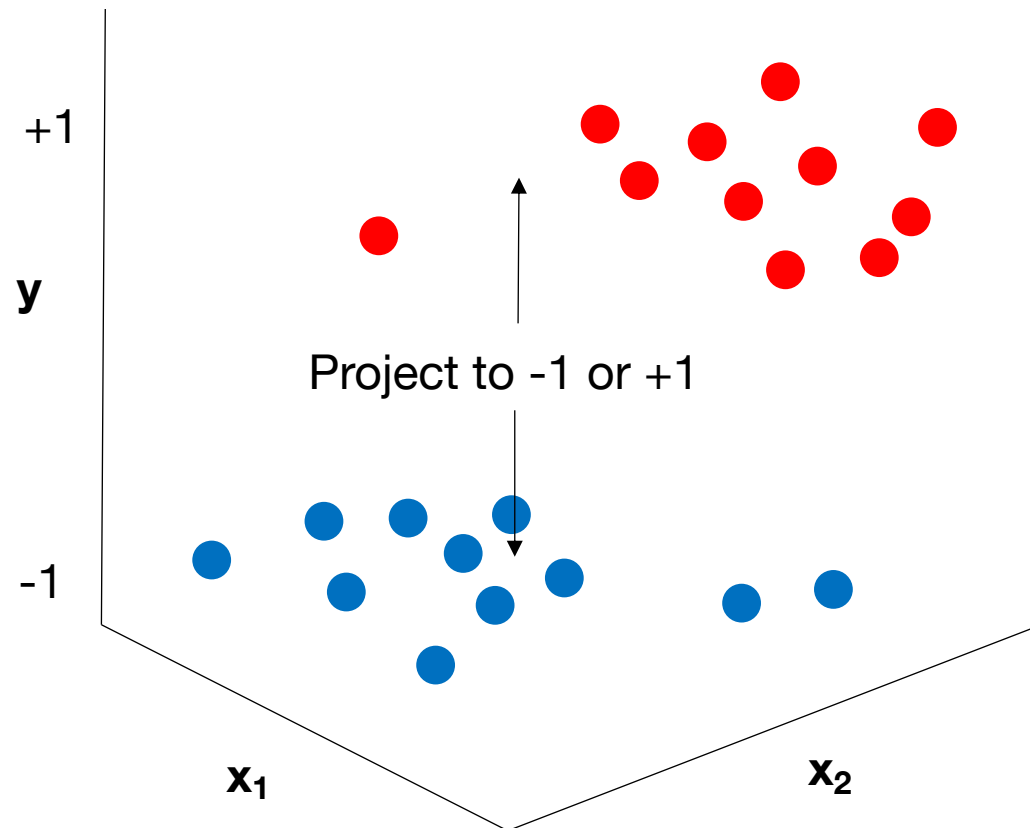
Without $\text{sgn}()$: regression for best fit

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$$

- If y_i can be anything, minimizing L makes \mathbf{w} the plane of best fit

Why does linear regression with $\text{sgn}()$ achieve classification?



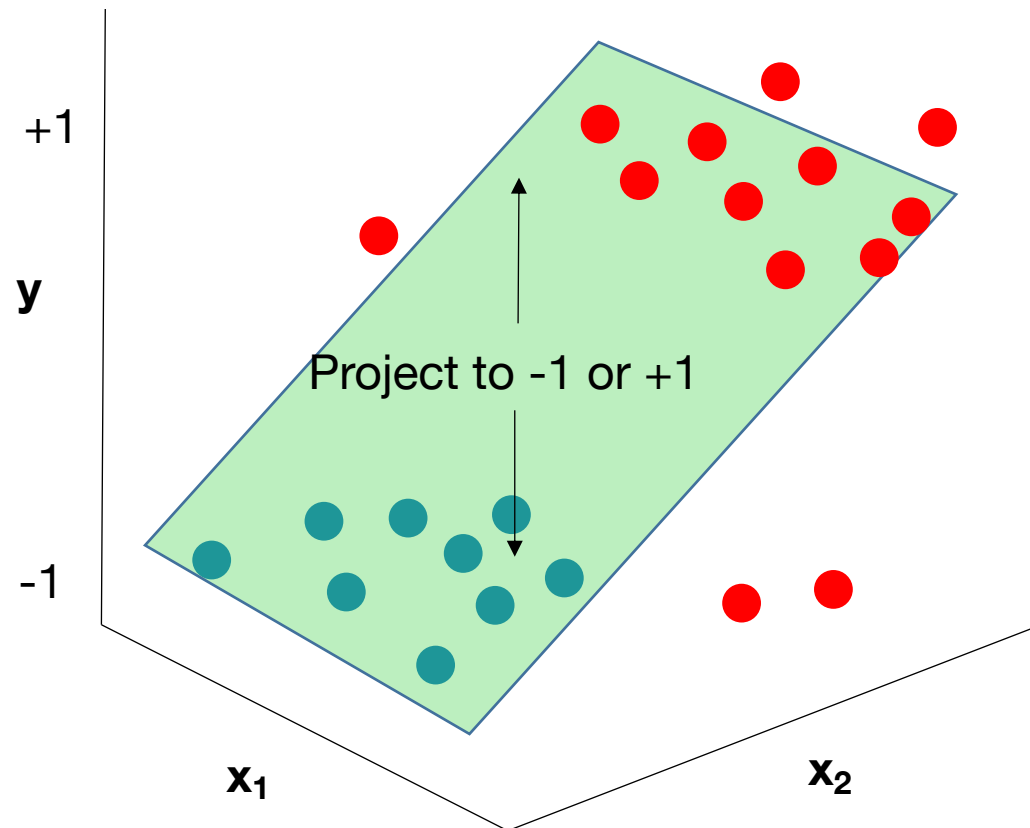
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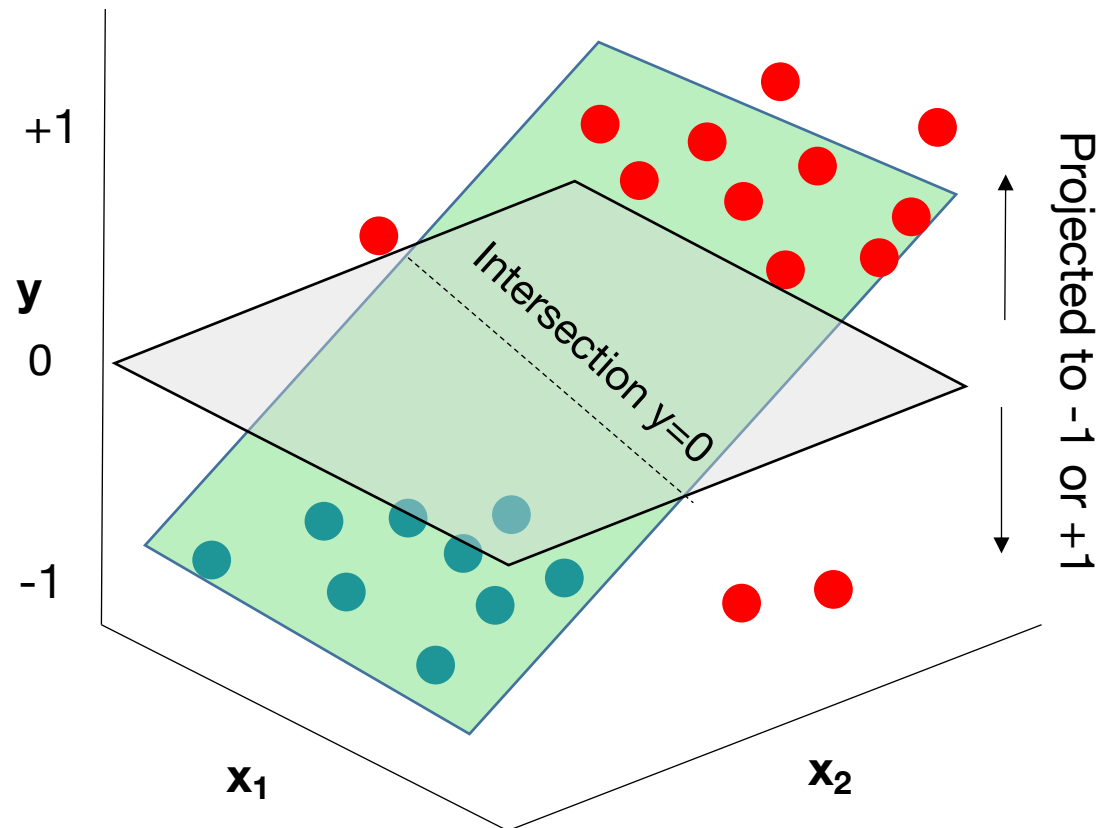
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- y_i can only be -1 or +1, which defines its class
- Can still find plane of best fit

Why does linear regression with $\text{sgn}()$ achieve classification?



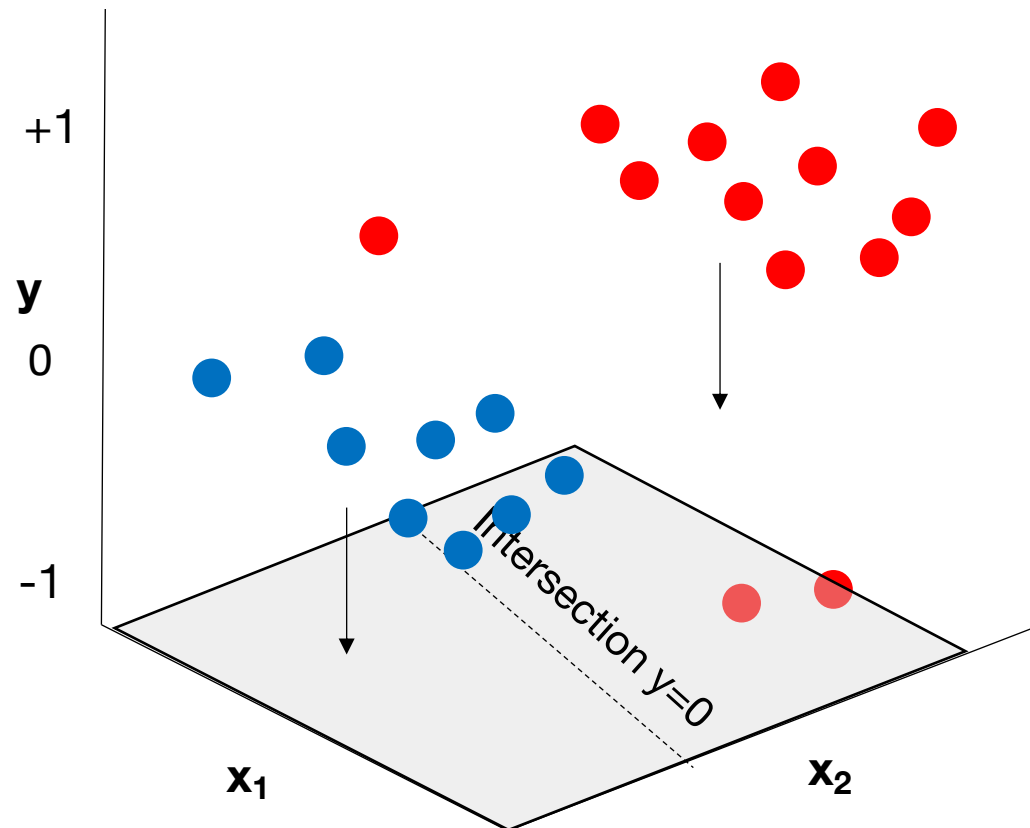
With $\text{sgn}()$ operation:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = y_i^* = \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$$

- Anything point to one side of $y=0$ intersection is class +1, anything on the other side of intersection is class -1

Why does linear regression with $\text{sgn}()$ achieve classification?



With $\text{sgn}()$ operation:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = y_i^* = \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)$$

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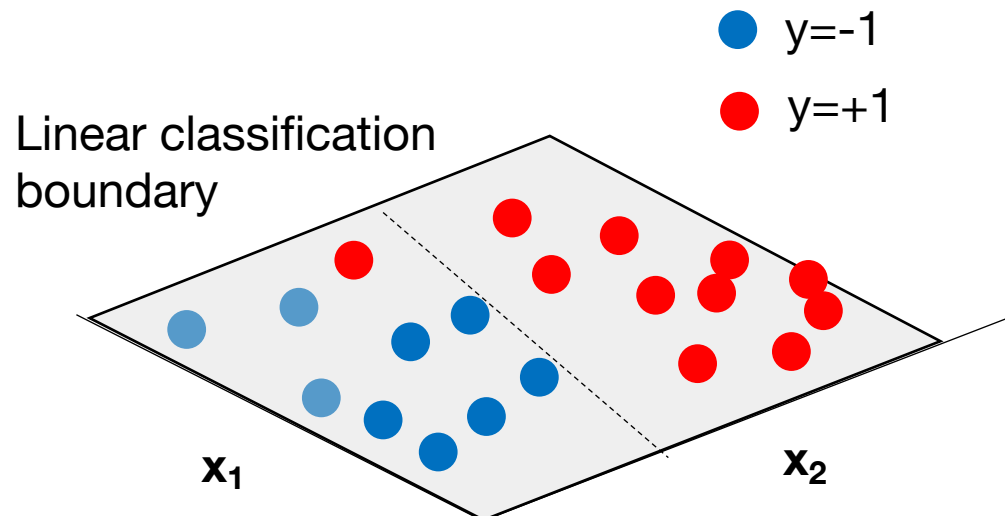
- y axis isn't really needed now & can view this decision boundary in 2D

Why does linear regression with $\text{sgn}()$ achieve classification?

With $\text{sgn}()$ operation:

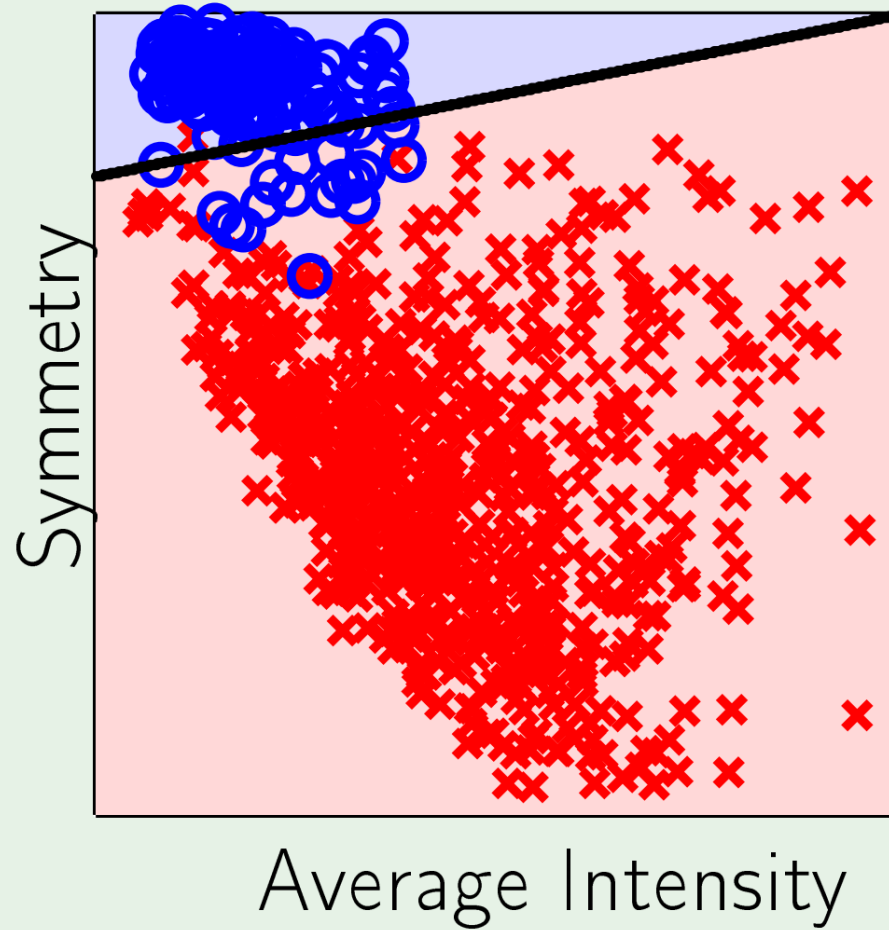
$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = y_i^* = \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)$$

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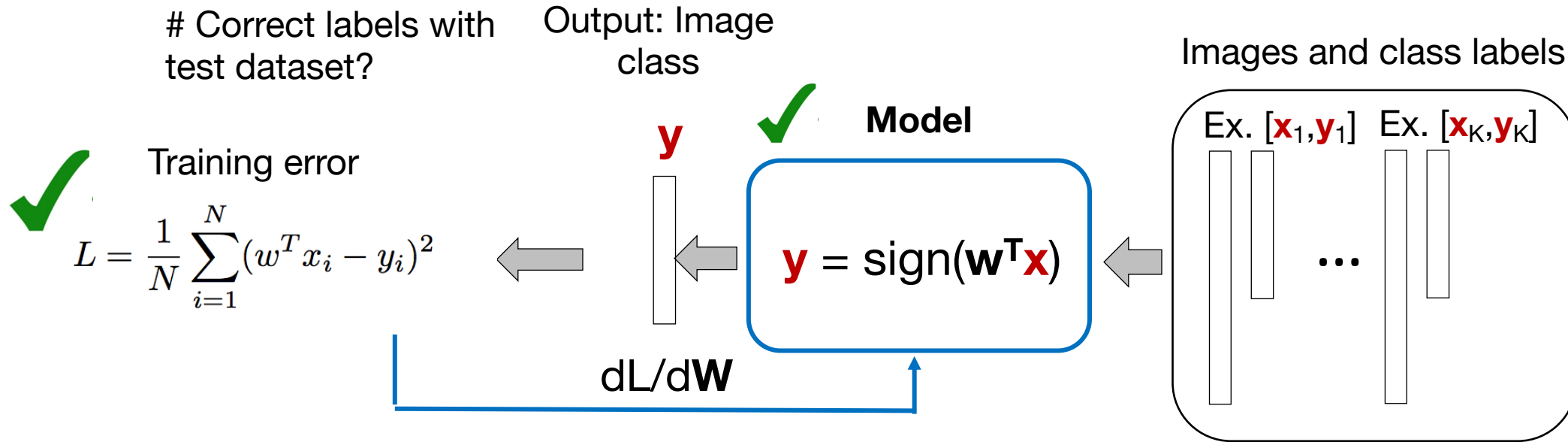


Sign operation takes linear regression and makes it a classification operation!

Linear regression boundary



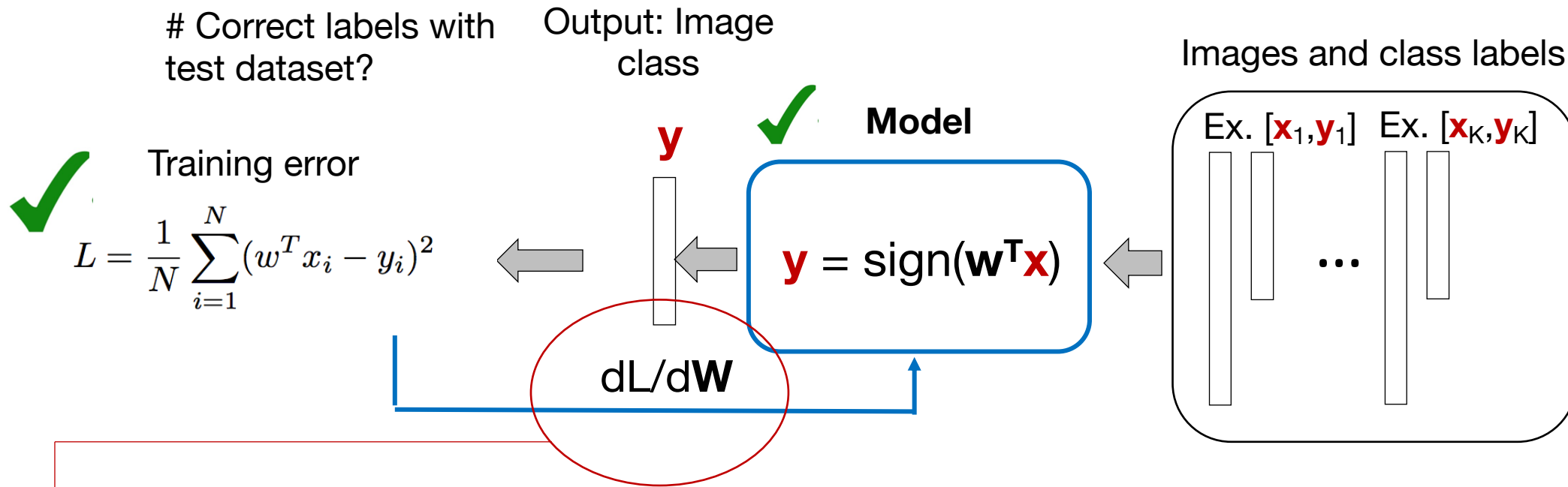
Example: machine learning for image classification



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- ✓ 2. A model and loss function
3. A way to minimize the loss function L

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3 methods to solve for w^T in the case of linear regression:

- (easier)
1. Pseudo-inverse (this is one of the few cases with a closed-form solution)
 2. Numerical gradient descent
 3. Gradient descent on the cost function with respect to W
- (harder)
- 
- A blue arrow pointing downwards, indicating the increasing difficulty of the methods listed.

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- A blue arrow points downwards from the word '(easier)' to the word '(harder)', indicating the increasing difficulty of the methods listed.

Next class: We'll talk more about gradient descent methods!