Ordinary Least Squares and its applications

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- 2 OLS examples: fitting of a straight line
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OLS and Wavelet transform

 Every mother Wavelet ψ(t) generate a basis which can be used to represent any function f(t)

$$\psi_{j,n}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2j}}\psi(\frac{r-2^{j}n}{2^{j}})$$
 (1)

$$f = \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_{j,n} \psi_{j,n}$$
(2)

$$c_{j,n} = \langle f, \psi_{j,n} \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \psi_{j,n}(t) dt$$
(3)

OLS and Wavelet transform

There are several ways to calculate the Wavelet coefficients $c_{i,n}$

- Calculate the scalar product $\langle f, \psi_{j,n} \rangle$
- Utilizing the DWT

The coefficients can be also found using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method

Given a generic function y(x) and a basis B we can represent y as

$$y(x_i) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n B_n(x_i)$$
(4)

For practical reason this summation is often truncated to the order N

$$y(x_i) = \sum_{n=0}^{N} c_n B_n(x_i)$$
(5)

This problem has an equivalent matrix representation

- **y** is a vector $s \times 1$ where s is the number of samples
- **c** is a vector $N \times 1$
- **B** is a matrix *s* × *N*

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} B_0(x_0) & B_1(x_0) & \dots & B_n(x_0) \\ B_0(x_1) & B_1(x_1) & \dots & B_n(x_1) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ B_0(x_s) & B_1(x_s) & \dots & B_n(x_s) \end{bmatrix}$$

(6)

The vector \mathbf{y} can be calculated as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{c} \tag{7}$$

The goal of OLS is finding the vector \mathbf{c} that minimize

$$\sum_{i=0}^{s} (y(x_i) - \sum_{n=0}^{N} c_n B_n(x_i))^2$$
(8)

or, using the matrix notation, as

$$\underset{\mathbf{c}}{\arg\min} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}\|^2 \tag{9}$$

In order to find ${\boldsymbol{c}}$ it is necessary to perform some algebraic operations

$$\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}\|^{2} =$$

$$= (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{c})^{T}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}) =$$

$$= (\mathbf{y}^{T} - \mathbf{c}^{T}\mathbf{B}^{T})(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}) =$$

$$= \mathbf{y}^{T}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}^{T}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c} - \mathbf{c}^{T}\mathbf{B}^{T}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{c}^{T}\mathbf{B}^{T}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c} =$$

$$= \mathbf{y}^{T}\mathbf{y} - 2\mathbf{c}^{T}\mathbf{B}^{T}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{c}^{T}\mathbf{B}^{T}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}$$
(10)

Note: This is equivalent to the second order equation

$$y^2 - 2c(by) + c^2 b^2 \tag{11}$$

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$$y^2 - 2c(by) + c^2 b^2 \tag{11}$$

- Since this equation is convex, it presents only one point in which the derivative is zero and this point is a minimum
- ${\ensuremath{\,\circ\,}}$ We can calculate the derivative by calculating the gradient $\nabla_{{\ensuremath{c}}}$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{c}}(\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y} - 2\mathbf{c}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{c}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}) = -2\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}$$
(12)

And find the minimum

$$-2\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c} = 0$$
$$\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}$$
$$\mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}$$
(13)

- \bullet OLS guarantees to provide the minimum error $\| \boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{c} \|^2$
- This is true also when the observations **y** are corrupted with Gaussian noise

$$\mathbf{y}_{noise} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}, \sigma) \tag{14}$$

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Case one: straight line

- Linear regression problem
- The data consist of s observations of y ∈ R, function of the independent variable x
- The goal is to find the straight line y = rx + q that better approximates the data



Case one: straight line

The problem can be also viewed as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}$$
(15)
where $\mathbf{c} = [r, q]^T$ and
$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ x_s & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(16)
resulting in
$$\begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ \vdots \\ y_s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r \cdot x_0 + q \\ \vdots \\ r \cdot x_s + q \end{bmatrix}$$
(17)

where $\mathbf{c} =$

Case one: straight line

The problem can be solved using OLS

$$\mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{B})^{-1} \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{y} \qquad (18)$$

The line coefficients r and q are respectively c[0] and c[1]

$$\mathbf{y}_{fit} = c[0] * \mathbf{x} + c[1] \qquad (19)$$



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Given a function f(t) we want to represent it using a family of wavelets up to the orders J and N

$$f(t) = \sum_{j=-J}^{J} \sum_{n=-N}^{N} c_{j,n} \psi_{j,n}(t) \quad (20)$$

In this case the representations will not be perfect, because of the truncation of the infinite series



We can view the problem as

$$\mathbf{f} = \Psi \mathbf{c} \tag{21}$$

where \mathbf{c} are the wavelet coefficients and

$$\Psi = \begin{bmatrix} \psi_{-J,-N}(t_0) & \dots & \psi_{J,N}(t_0) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \psi_{-J,-N}(t_s) & \dots & \psi_{J,N}(t_s) \end{bmatrix}$$

(22)

The problem can be solved using OLS as

$$\mathbf{c} = (\Psi^{\mathsf{T}} \Psi)^{-1} \Psi^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{f}$$
(23)

Depending on the number of samples and coefficients, the square matrix $\Psi^{\mathcal{T}}\Psi$ could not be invertible

In this case it is necessary to introduce some regularization, conditioning the diagonal of the matrix

$$\mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{\Psi}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{\Psi} + \lambda \mathbf{1})^{-1} \mathbf{\Psi}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{f}$$
(24)

where ${\bf 1}$ is the identity matrix of size $n_c \times n_c$ and λ is a small positive number

Considering two families of wavelets

• Haar wavelet

$$\psi(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } t < 0 \lor t \ge 1 \\ 1, & \text{if } 0 \le t < \frac{1}{2} \\ -1, & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \le t < 1 \end{cases}$$
(25)

• Mexican hat

$$\psi(t,\sigma) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2*\sigma}\pi^{\frac{1}{4}}} \left(1 - \frac{t^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$
(26)



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The neuron

- The most fundamental component of the nervous system is the neuron
- The neuron can be subdivided in two parts: the cellular body (soma) and the axon
- The axons connect the different neurons in the brain



White Matter organization

- The neuron bodies are mainly clustered in the outer region of the brain, the brain cortex or Gray Matter
- The cortex is subdivided in functional regions (e.g. motor cortex)
- The axons are grouped in bundles that which connect the different region of the brain and form the White Matter



Magnetic Resonance Imaging

- Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) is one of the only non-invasive technique which enables to characterize soft tissues *in-vivo*
- With traditional MRI techniques it is possible to obtain clear images of the principal brain tissues
- However with standard MRI resolution it is impossible to observe the white matter fibers which diameter is in the range of the micrometers



Diffusion Magnetic Resonance Imaging

- The goal of Diffusion MRI is to characterize the brain tissue microstructure by observing the water molecules diffusion profile
- By studying the principal direction of diffusion in each voxel it is possible to estimate the local orientation of the WM fibers
- Propagating the local information for all the voxels it is possible to reconstruct streamlines that generally follows the WM topography



Diffusion MRI: Pulse Gradient Spin Echo



• The diffusion signal is measured as a function of the b-value

$$\mathbf{b} = (\Delta - \delta/3)(\gamma \delta \mathbf{G})^2$$

• We can define $\mathbf{q} = \frac{\gamma \delta \mathbf{G}}{2\pi}$, the q-value

• And the effective diffusion time $au=\Delta-\delta/3$

$$\mathbf{b} = 4\pi^2 \tau \mathbf{q}^2$$

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- By changing the b-value and the direction of the pulse it is possible to measure the diffusion dependent MR signal
- In DMRI the signal is attenuated more in the direction where the water molecules are more free to diffuse
- Higher b-values corresponds to higher signal attenuation ⇒ more signal from low diffusion areas

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Diffusion MRI: sampling schemes



- A higher number of points is generally better in order to characterize the diffusion process
- There are physical limitations (time, gradient strength, noise)

Diffusion Ensemble Average Propagator

 The diffusion signal E(q) is linked to the probability density function of the water molecules displacement P(r)

$$P(\mathbf{r}) = \int_{\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{R}^3} E(\mathbf{q}) e^{-2\pi i \mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{r}} d\mathbf{q}$$

- This pdf is also called Ensemble Average Propagator (EAP)
- The EAP holds two important properties

$$P(\mathbf{r}) \ge 0 \ \forall \ \mathbf{r}$$

 $\int_{\mathbf{r} \in \mathbb{R}^3} P(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r} = 1$



EAP-derived indices: ODF

- By averaging the radial part of the EAP it is possible to obtain the diffusion orientation profile of the water molecules displacement
- This is also known as Orientation Distribution Function (ODF)

$$ODF(\mathbf{u}) = \int_0^\infty P(r\mathbf{u})r^2dr$$

• Where **u** is a unit vector representing a direction



- In order to calculate the EAP from the diffusion signal it is necessary to calculate its Fourier transform
- If the signal is sampled in a Cartesian grid it is possible to use the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)
- More generally, since the signal is generally sampled in a non-uniform manner, it is necessary to fit a mathematical model to the signal
- The mathematical models used in DMRI are called reconstruction models

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Diffusion Tensor Imaging

- The most widely used reconstruction model is the Diffusion Tensor Imaging (DTI)
- DTI models the diffusion signal as a multivariate Gaussian function

$$E(\mathbf{q}) = \exp(-4\pi^2 \tau \mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{q})$$

- Where **D** is a 3×3 symmetric matrix
- The DTI EAP can be calculated as

$$P(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(4\pi\tau)^3 |\mathbf{D}|}} \exp \frac{-\mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{r}}{4\tau}$$



In order to model the diffusion signal using DTI it is necessary to fit the diffusion tensor ${\bf D}$

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} D_{x,x} & D_{x,y} & D_{x,z} \\ D_{x,y} & D_{y,y} & D_{y,z} \\ D_{x,z} & D_{y,z} & D_{z,z} \end{bmatrix}$$
(27)

The signal equation can be rewritten as

$$E(\mathbf{b}) = \exp(-b\mathbf{u}^{T}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{u})$$

$$-\frac{\ln(E(\mathbf{b}))}{b} = \mathbf{u}^{T}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{u}$$
 (28)

$$-\frac{\ln(E(\mathbf{b}))}{b} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{x} & u_{y} & u_{z} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} D_{x,x} & D_{x,y} & D_{x,z} \\ D_{x,y} & D_{y,y} & D_{y,z} \\ D_{x,z} & D_{y,z} & D_{z,z} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{x} \\ u_{y} \\ u_{z} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= u_{x}^{2} D_{x,x} + 2u_{x} u_{y} D_{x,y} + 2u_{x} u_{z} D_{x,z} + 2u_{y} u_{z} D_{y,z} + u_{y}^{2} D_{y,y} + u_{z}^{2} D_{z,z}$$

$$-\frac{\ln(E(\mathbf{b}))}{b} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{x} & u_{y} & u_{z} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} D_{x,x} & D_{x,y} & D_{x,z} \\ D_{x,y} & D_{y,y} & D_{y,z} \\ D_{x,z} & D_{y,z} & D_{z,z} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{x} \\ u_{y} \\ u_{z} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= u_{x}^{2} D_{x,x} + 2u_{x} u_{y} D_{x,y} + 2u_{x} u_{z} D_{x,z} + 2u_{y} u_{z} D_{y,z} + u_{y}^{2} D_{y,y} + u_{z}^{2} D_{z,z}$$
(29)

We can recast the problem using OLS where the observations are $-\frac{\ln(\mathcal{E}(\mathbf{b}_i))}{b_i}$ and the coefficients vector and the matrix basis are

$$\mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} D_{x,x} \\ D_{x,y} \\ D_{x,z} \\ D_{y,z} \\ D_{y,y} \\ D_{z,z} \end{bmatrix}$$
(30)
$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{0x}^{2} & 2u_{0x}u_{0y} & 2u_{0x}u_{0z} & 2u_{0y}u_{0z} & u_{0y}^{2} & u_{0z}^{2} \\ u_{1x}^{2} & 2u_{1x}u_{1y} & 2u_{1x}u_{1z} & 2u_{1y}u_{1z} & u_{1y}^{2} & u_{1z}^{2} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_{sx}^{2} & 2u_{sx}u_{sy} & 2u_{sx}u_{sz} & 2u_{sy}u_{sz} & u_{sy}^{2} & u_{sz}^{2} \end{bmatrix}$$
(31)

The coefficients can be retrieved using OLS as

$$\mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{M}^{T}\mathbf{M})^{-1}\mathbf{M}^{T}\left(-\frac{\ln(\mathcal{E}(\mathbf{b}))}{b}\right)$$
(32)

- In theory only 6 samples are necessary to fit DTI coefficients
- In general, because of the noise, at least 30 samples are used in clincal practice
- OLS can be used for fitting the diffusion tensor only when all the sample are acquired using a single b-value

DTI limitations



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Spherical Harmonics

- The diffusion signal at a given *b-value* and the ODF are symmetric function on the sphere
- Spherical Harmonics (SH) are a useful basis for representing spherical functions
- SH can be viewed as the equivalent of the complex exponential $e^{-i\phi}$ on the sphere

Real Spherical Harmonics

$$Y_{l}^{m} = \begin{cases} \sqrt{2} \cdot Re(\hat{Y}_{l}^{m}), & \text{if -l} \leq m < 0\\ \hat{Y}_{l}^{0}, & \text{if } m = 0\\ \sqrt{2} \cdot Img(\hat{Y}_{l}^{m}), & \text{if } 0 < m \leq l \end{cases}$$
(33)

where \hat{Y}_{l}^{m} is the normalized SH basis, written as

$$\hat{Y}_{l}^{m}(\theta,\phi) = \sqrt{\frac{(2l+1)(l-m)!}{4\pi(l+m)!}} P_{l}^{m}(\cos\theta) e^{im\phi}$$
(34)

with θ, ϕ the polar representation of **u**, and P_l^m the associated Legendre Polynomial

Real Spherical Harmonics



Ordinary Least Squares and its applications

Real Spherical Harmonics

We can fit the diffusion signal at a given b-value and in a given direction ${\boldsymbol{\mathsf{u}}}$ as

$$E(b, \mathbf{u}) = \sum_{l=0, \text{ even } m=-l}^{N} \sum_{m=-l}^{l} c_{l,m} Y_{l,m}(\mathbf{u})$$
(35)

where the coefficients $c_{l,m}$ are obtained as

$$\mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Y})^{-1}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}E(b,\mathbf{u})$$
(36)

with **Y** defined as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_{0,0}(\mathbf{u}_0) & Y_{2,-2}(\mathbf{u}_0) & \dots & Y_{N,N}(\mathbf{u}_0) \\ Y_{0,0}(\mathbf{u}_1) & Y_{2,-2}(\mathbf{u}_1) & \dots & Y_{N,N}(\mathbf{u}_1) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ Y_{0,0}(\mathbf{u}_s) & Y_{2,-2}(\mathbf{u}_s) & \dots & Y_{N,N}(\mathbf{u}_s) \end{bmatrix}$$
(37)

Spherical Harmonics as interpolation basis

We can recover the diffusion signal in ${\boldsymbol{u}}$ as

$$E(b,\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{c} \tag{38}$$

The coefficients **c** described the signal in the full S^2 space and not only in the set of points **u** used for the fitting





The End