



Machine Learning for Electron Microscopy

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Electron Microscopy Characterisation of the Nanoscale
Applied Physics MSc program, TU Delft

03/06/2021

Lecture outline

Part I: A Crash Course on Machine Learning

- Basic concepts and terminology
- Supervised Learning and regression
- Artificial Neural Networks and their training
- Convolutional Neural Networks
- Reinforcement and Adversarial Learning

Based on *Machine Learning for Physics* and *Astronomy*, UvA/VU BSc *natuur- en sterrenkunde*, Honours track:

https://github.com/LHCfitNikhef/ML4PA

Part II: Machine Learning for Electron Microscopy

- Background subtraction in electron energy loss spectroscopy
- Automated identification of structural defects
- Improving data acquisition performance in STEM
- Predicting image features from partial inputs

+ hands-on tutorial!

Part I

A crash course on ML

Why this course?

Machine Learning rightly deserves to be part of the toolbox of a modern scientist

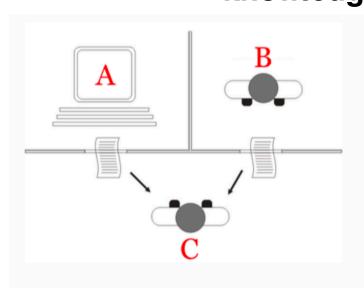
- Essential for building modern models and algorithms in various areas of physics and astronomy
- Very fast developments both in algorithms and in computing platforms have significantly extended the breadth of problems that can be tackled with ML
- Deep physical connections with many problems in physics and astronomy, e.g. quantum computation, condensed matter systems, conservation laws,
- Applied to problems even in very formal fields, e.g. string theory
- Large interested in the community, **societal implications** (Al hype)

Furthermore, expertise in ML/AI is powerful asset for also for careers outside academia

Problems in Al

Most problems tackled with Artificial Intelligence fall in two categories

(1) abstract and formal: easy for computers but difficult for humans knowledge-based approach





e.g. chess (DeepBlue)

(chess is deterministic game with finite number of options)

(2) intuitive, hard to formalize: easy for humans but difficult for machines concept capture and generalisation





e.g. pattern recognition

Problems in Al

Most problems tackled with Artificial Intelligence fall in two categories

To excel in tasks which are intuitive to humans but difficult to machines, an A.I. system needs to acquire its own knowledge: the Machine is Learning

unlike in chess, where there is no new knowledge to acquire once rules are spelled out

Machine Learning algorithms allow computers the ability to carry out a task without being explicitly programmed how to do it by learning from examples

(2) intuitive, hard to formalize: easy for humans but difficult for machines concept capture and generalisation





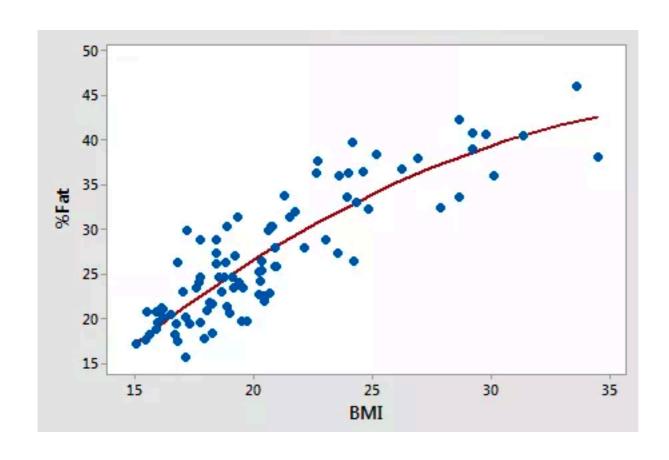
e.g. pattern recognition

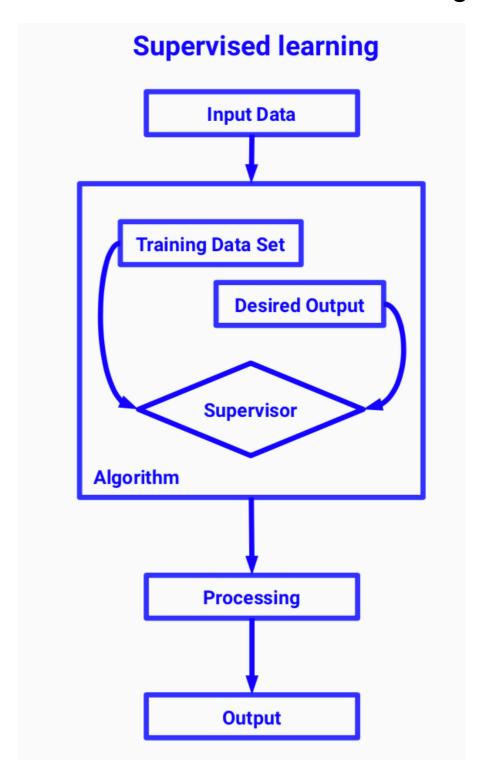
Learning to learn

Machine Learning algorithms can be divided into several classes, including

Supervised Learning:

regression, classification, ...

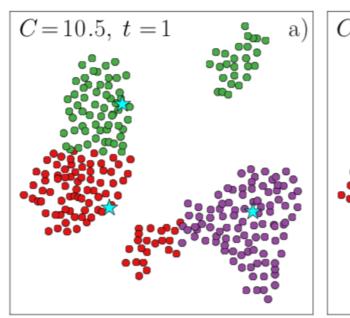


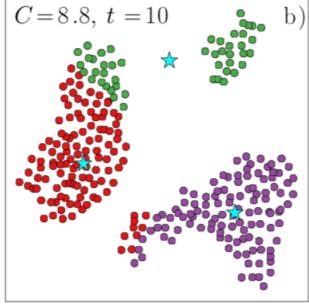


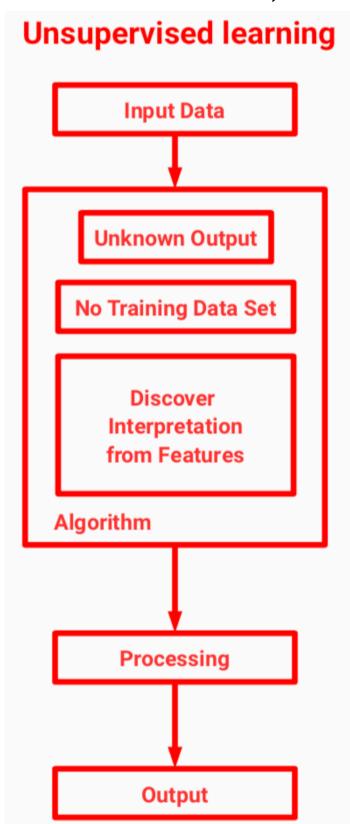
Learning to learn

Machine Learning algorithms can be divided into several classes, including

- Supervised Learning: regression, classification, ...
- Unsupervised Learning: clustering, data dimensional reduction,



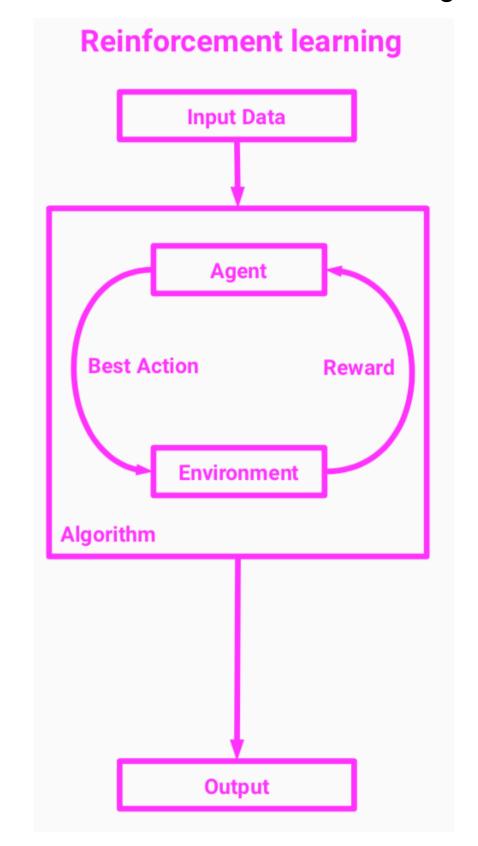




Learning to learn

Machine Learning algorithms can be divided into several classes, including





Supervised Learning: and Regression

Supervised learning

We denote as **supervised learning** the ML task of **learning a function** that maps a **vector of inputs** to a **vector of outputs** from a finite set of training example

note that some assumptions will be needed: a function is an **infinite-dimensional object** but learning takes place from a **finite number of examples**

main property of supervised learning: the training samples are labeled

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \left(x_{i,1}, x_{i,2}, \dots, x_{i,p}\right) \rightarrow y_i$$
data point (with p features)

label

the label can be **discrete** (signal/noise, cat/dog) or **continuous** (output of function)

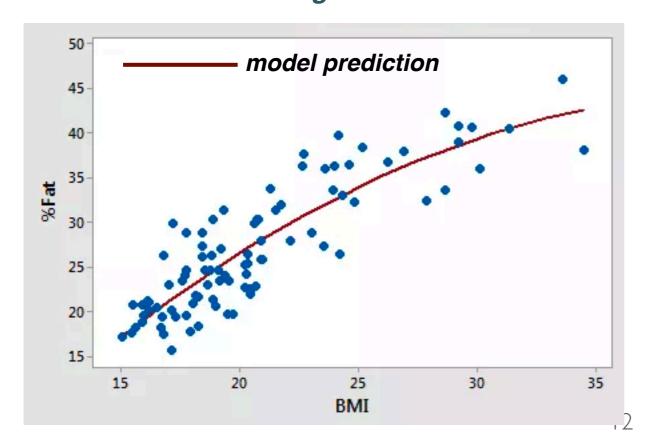
Supervised learning

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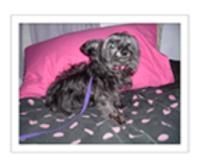
continuous outputs: regression



discrete outputs: classification















Setting up the problem

problems in **Supervised Machine Learning** are defined by the following ingredients:

(1) Input dataset:
$$\mathscr{D} = (X, Y)$$

array of **independent** variables

$$X = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$$
 $Y = (y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)$

$$\mathbf{x}_{i} = \left(x_{i,1}, x_{i,2}, \dots, x_{i,p}\right)$$

array of **dependent** variables

$$Y = (y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)$$

each independent variable contains p features

(2) Model:

$$f(X, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

mapping between dependent and independent variables

$$f: X \to Y$$

model parameters

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_m)$$

the more complex the problem, the more flexible the model

Setting up the problem

problems in **Supervised Machine Learning** are defined by the following ingredients:

(1) Input dataset:
$$\mathscr{D} = (X, Y)$$

(2) Model:
$$f(X, \theta)$$

(3) Cost function:
$$C(Y; f(X; \theta))$$

The cost function measures how well the model (for a specific choice of its parameters) is able to describe the input dataset

Fitting the model means determining the values of its parameters which **minimise the cost function**

$$\frac{\partial C\left(\mathbf{Y}; f(\mathbf{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta})\right)}{\partial \theta_i} \bigg|_{\boldsymbol{\theta} = \theta_{\text{opt}}} = 0$$

Best-fit model

What is the best strategy to **determine the model parameters**?

Seems a silly question, surely those are simply minimum of cost function?

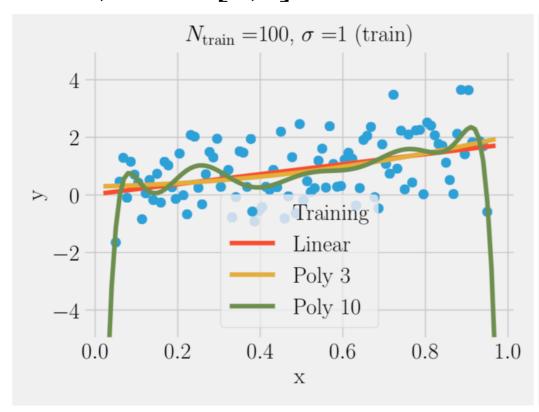
$$\widehat{\theta} = \arg\min_{\theta} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - f_{\alpha}(x_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\alpha}) \right)^2 \right\}$$

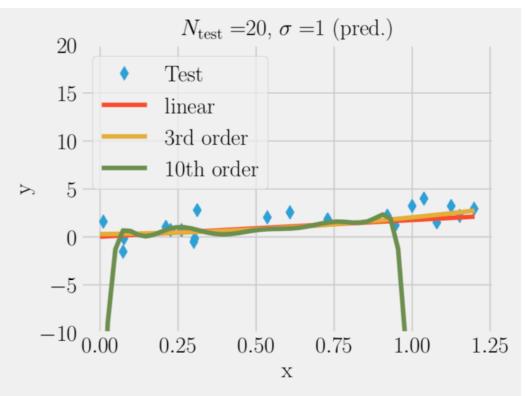
However this is in general **not the case**, because:

- Real world data is **noisy**: we want to **learn the underlying law**, not the statistical fluctuations
- More than fitting the data, our real goal is to create a model that **predicts future/ different data:** we need figures of merit outside the training dataset!
- For ensure that our model describes the underlying law (and thus one can safely generalise) rather than the noise, a **regularisation procedure** needs to be used

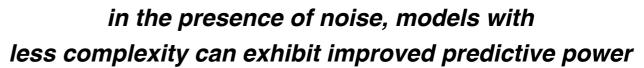
Model fitting

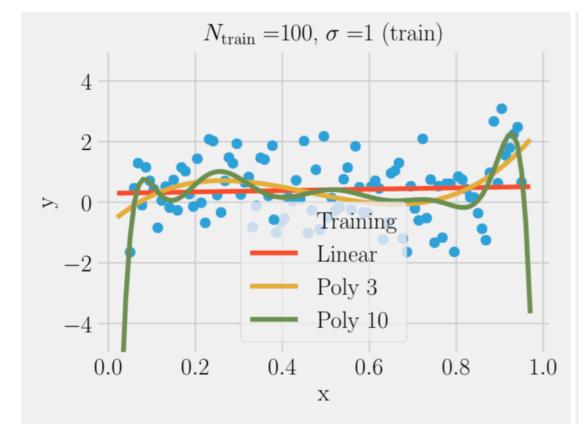
$$f(x) = 2x, \quad x \in [0,1]$$

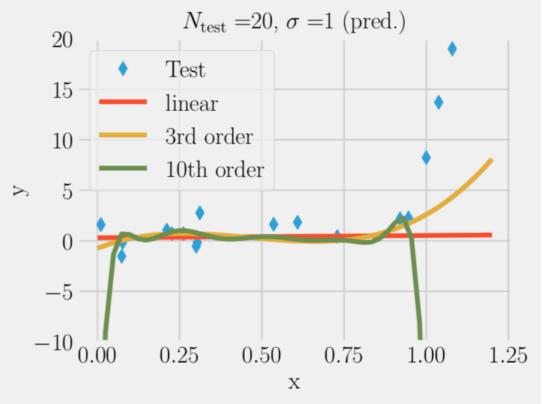




$$f(x) = 2x - 10x^5 + 15x^{10}, \quad x \in [0,1]$$







Cross-validation (regularisation)

In-sample (training) error
$$\longrightarrow E_{\mathrm{tr}} \equiv C\left(Y_{\mathrm{tr}}, f(X_{\mathrm{tr}}; \widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})\right)$$

Out-of-sample (validation) error
$$\longrightarrow E_{\mathrm{val}} \equiv C\left(Y_{\mathrm{val}}, f(X_{\mathrm{val}}; \widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})\right)$$

Splitting the data into mutually exclusive training and validation sets provides an unbiased estimate for the **predictive performance of the model**

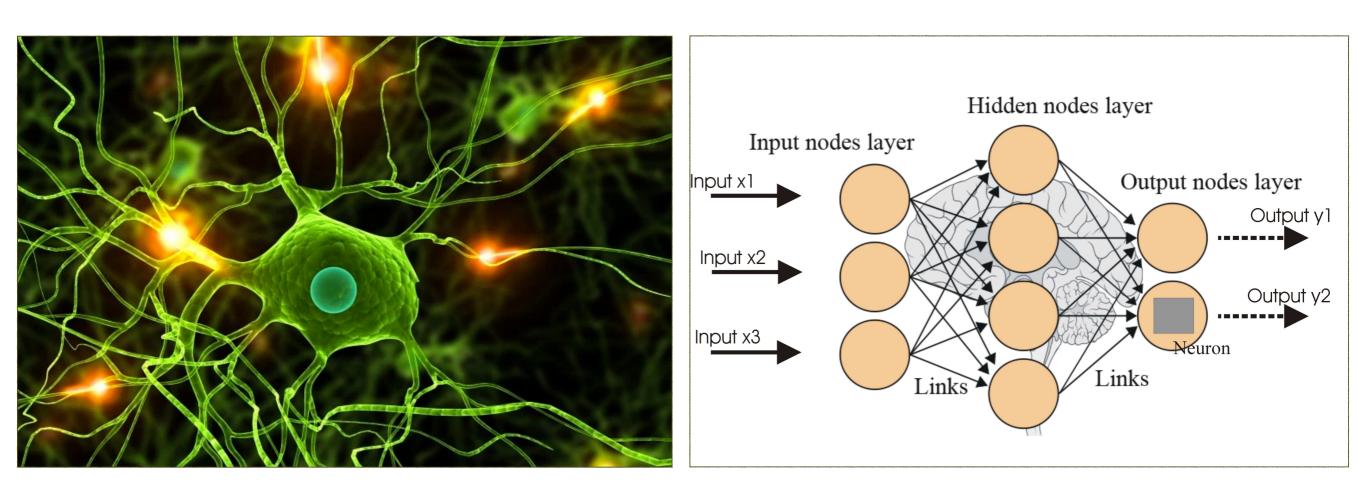
In ML problems one should select the model that **minimises** the out-of-sample error E_{val} , since this is the model that generalises in the most efficient way

Fitting is not predicting: in general the model that describes better a given set of data will not be the one that generalises and predicts better related datasets

(Deep) Neural Networks

Artificial Neural Networks

Inspired by **biological brain models**, **Artificial Neural Networks** (ANNs) are mathematical algorithms designed to excel where domains as their evolution-driven counterparts outperforms traditional algorithms in tasks such as **pattern recognition**, **forecasting**, **classification**, ...

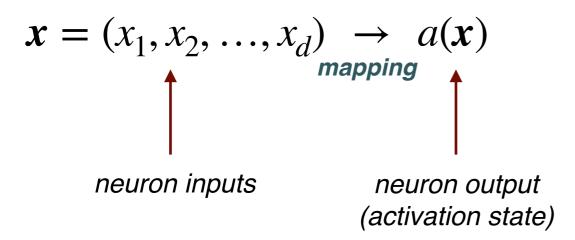


in ML context, ANN provide a flexible, powerful non-linear model for many problems

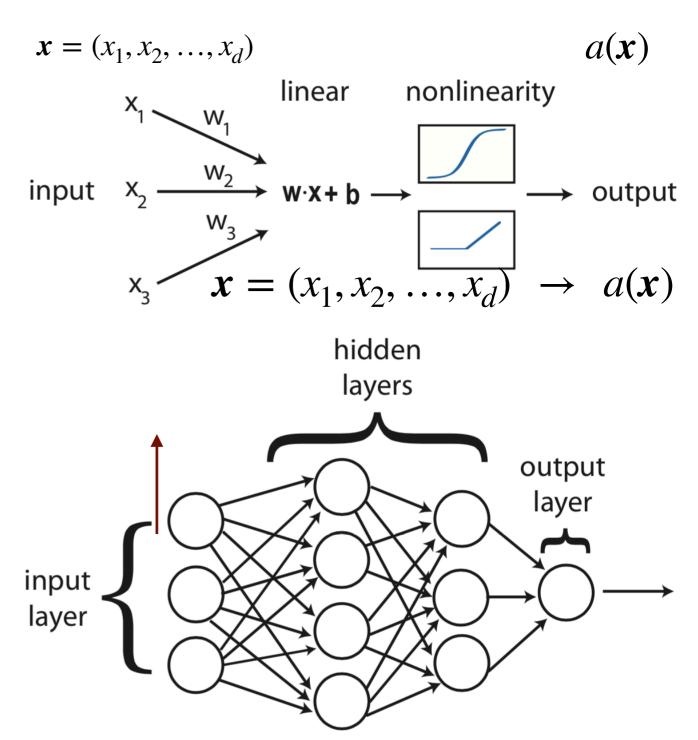
Neural Networks

Neural Nets can be defined as neural-inspired nonlinear models for supervised learning

From The basic unit of a NN is the **neuron**, a transformation of a set of *d* input features into a scalar output

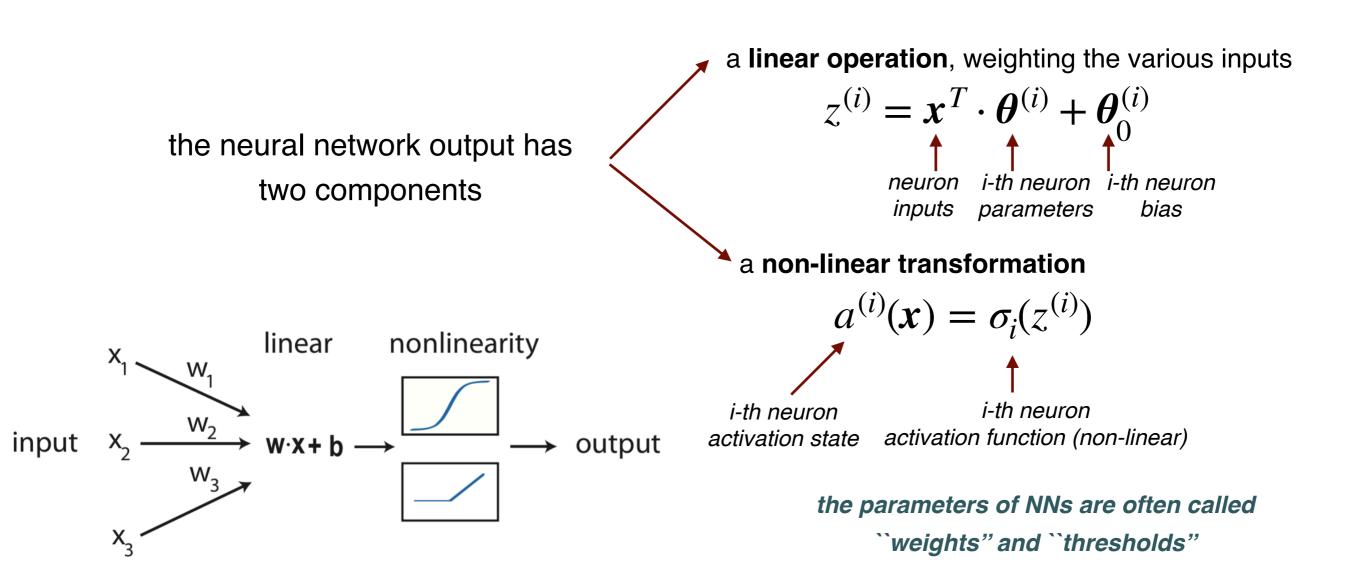


- These neutrons are arranged in layers, which in turn are stacked on each other. The intermediate layers are called hidden layers
- Figure Here we will focus on **feed-forward NNs**, where the output of the neurons of the previous layer becomes the input of the neurons in the subsequent layer



Neural Networks

Neural Nets can be defined as neural-inspired nonlinear models for supervised learning

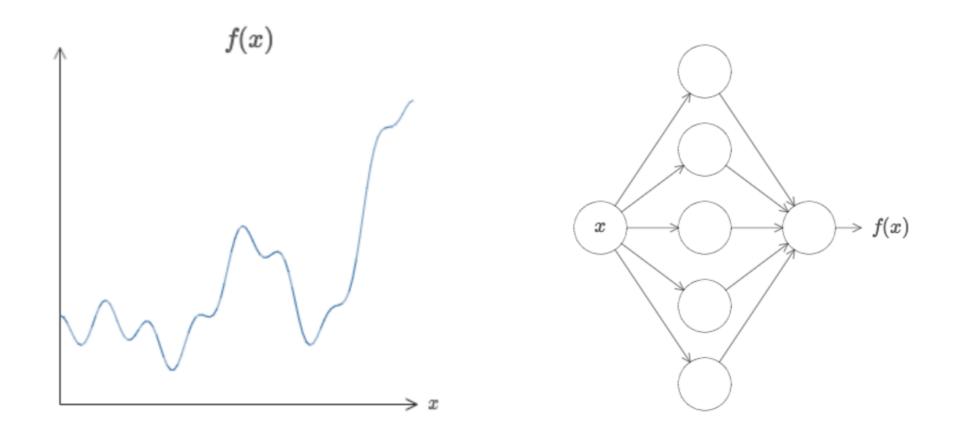


the choice of non-linear activation function affects the **computational and training properties** of the neural nets, since they modify the output gradients required for GD training

NN nonlinearly only via activation functions!

The Universal Approximation Theorem

theorem: a neural network with a single hidden layer and enough neurones can approximate any continuous, multi-input/multi-output function with arbitrary accuracy



neural networks exhibit *universality properties:* no matter what function we want to compute, we know (theorem!) that there is a neural network which can carry out this task

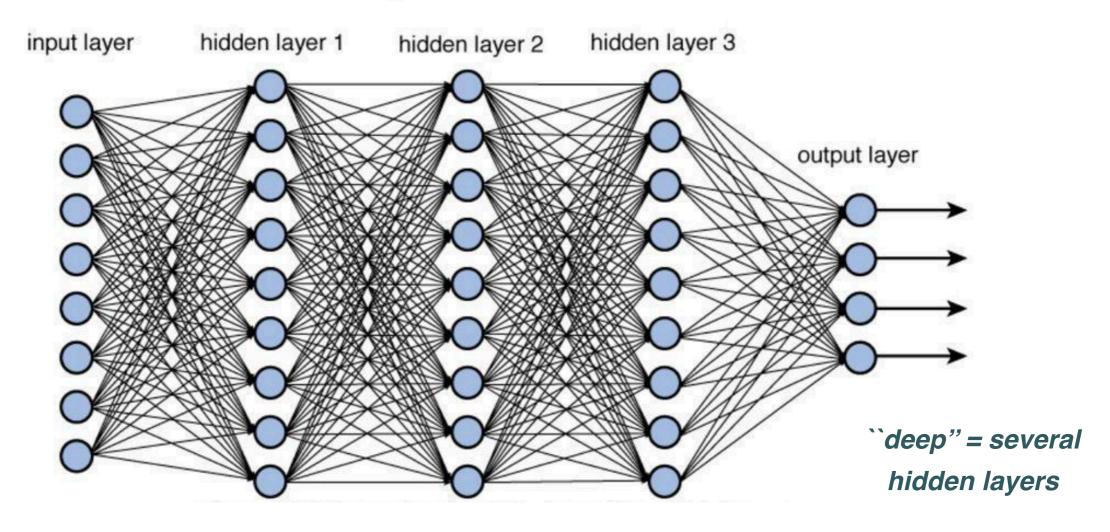
See M. Nielsen, Neural Networks and Deep Learning: http://neuralnetworksanddeeplearning.com/chap4.html

Deep Networks

A neural network can thus be thought of a **complicated non-linear mapping** between the inputs and the outputs that depends on the parameters (weights and bias) of each neuron

We can make a NN deep by adding hidden layers, which greatly expands their representational power, also known as expressivity

Deep Neural Network



NN training

As standard in **Supervised Learning**, the first step to train a NN is to specify a **cost function**

$$(\boldsymbol{x}_i, y_i)$$
, $i = 1,...,n$ \longrightarrow $\widehat{y}_i(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, $i = 1,...,n$

for each of the n data points ...

... the output of the NN provides the model prediction

the loss function depends on whether the NN should provide **continuous or categorical** (discrete) predictions. For continuous data we can have the **mean square error**

$$E(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - \hat{y}_i \left(\boldsymbol{\theta} \right) \right)^2$$

for categorical data we use the cross-entropy, which for binary (true/false) classification is

$$E(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i \ln \hat{y}_i(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + (1 - y_i) \ln(1 - \hat{y}_i(\boldsymbol{\theta})) \right)$$

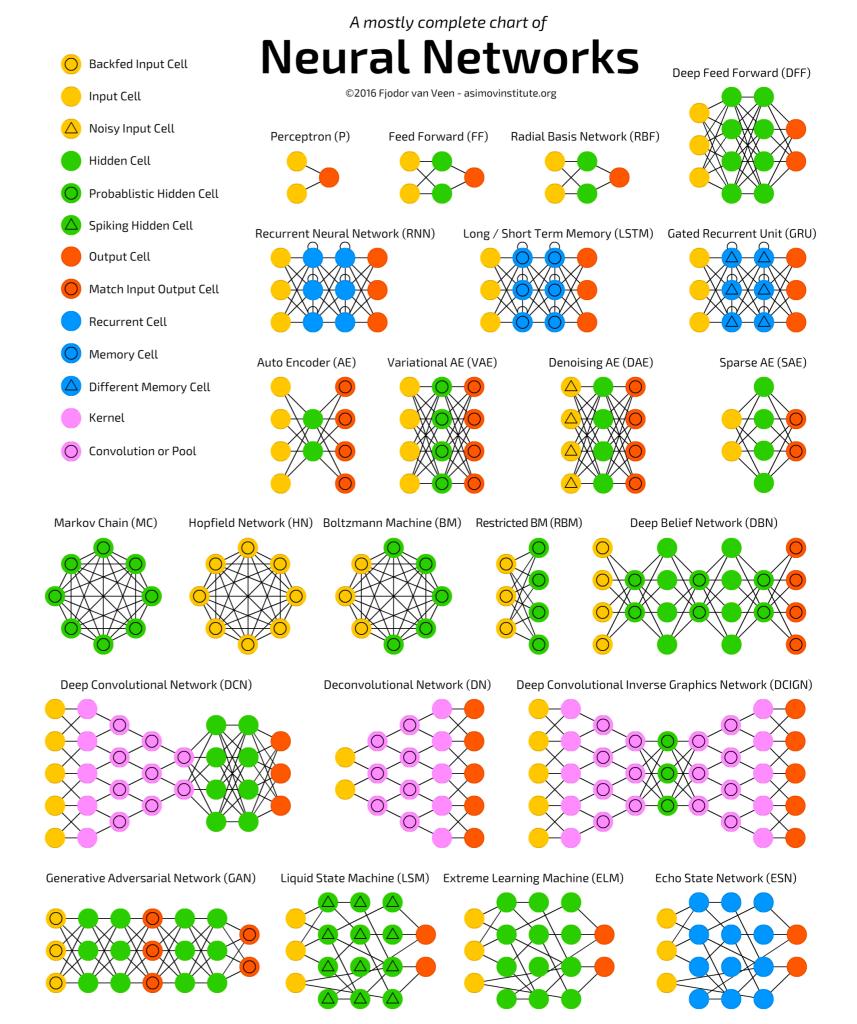
where the true labels satisfy $y_i \in \{0,1\}$

NN training are based on a specific version of GD methods: backpropagation

A large variety of neural network architectures have been proposed: we will only study some of them in this course

Fig. They differ in: number of layers and neurons, role of the neurons, connections between neurons and layers,

Each architecture in general has associated different training and regularisation strategies: no fitfor-all methods available!



Convolutional Neural Networks

Supervised learning and classification

The goal is to predict a class label from a pre-defined list of possibilities

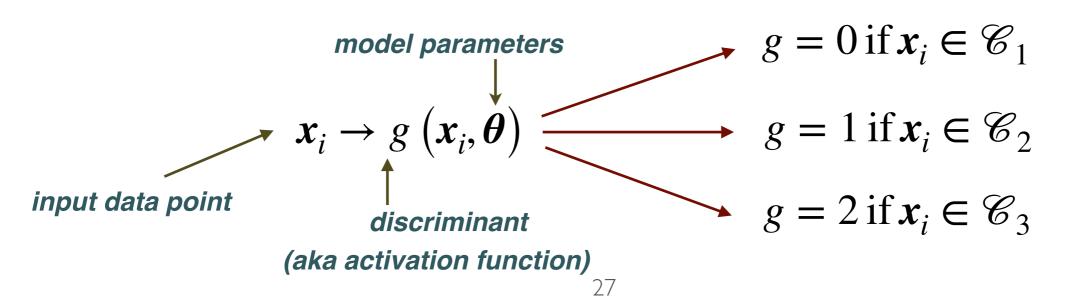
the simplest type of problem is **binary classification** (yes/no problems)

e.g. should I put this email in the spam folder?

but in general one considers **multiclass classification** (> 2 categories)

e.g. which type of bird is the one I just photographed?

In the context of ML applications there exist a large number of approaches to classifications tasks. The most basic one is based on assembling a **discriminant function** that maps each input data point to its specific class

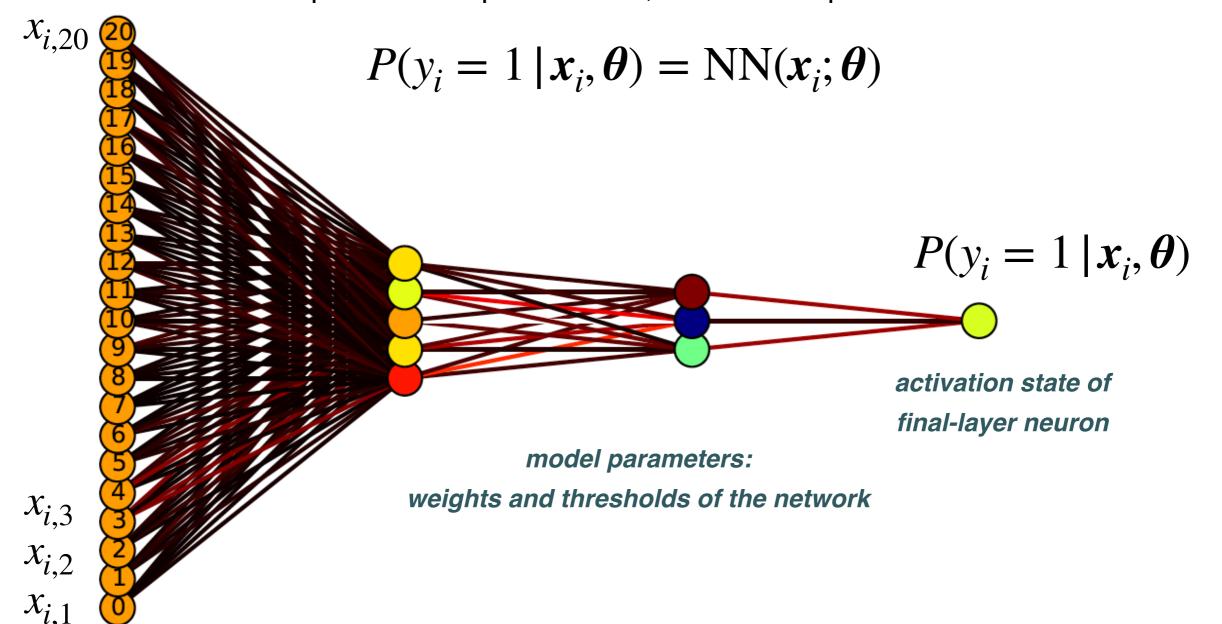


Supervised learning and classification

instead of modelling the classification probability by a simple logistic function

$$P(y_i = 1 \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\theta}}}$$

one can adopt more complex models, such as deep neural networks



Like physical systems, many datasets and supervised learning tasks also possess additional **symmetries and structure** what can (and should) be exploited



e.g. we want to train a classifier to identify pictures of cats. What **high-level features** must one learn first?

Like physical systems, many datasets and supervised learning tasks also possess additional **symmetries and structure** what can (and should) be exploited



e.g. we want to train a classifier to identify pictures of cats. What **high-level features** must one learn first?

- From The features that define ``cat" are local in the picture: whiskers, tail, paws ...: locality
- Cats can be anywhere in the image: translational invariance
- Relative position of features must be respected (eg whiskers and tail shoaled appear in opposite sides of ``cat"): rotational invariance

Our classifier should exhibit all these high-level features

our goal is to create models which are invariant wrt certain transformations of the inputs

CNNs hard-code these invariance properties into the structure of the network

extensively used for applications in pattern recognition

e.g. classify handwritten digits

Inputs: set of pixel intensity values of each image

3 3 6
Output: posterior probability distribution over the 10 digit classes

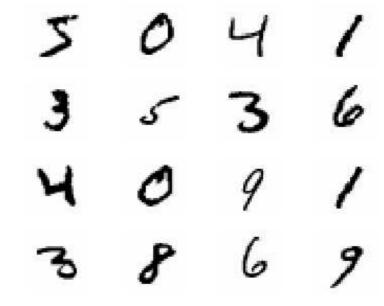
4 0 9 /

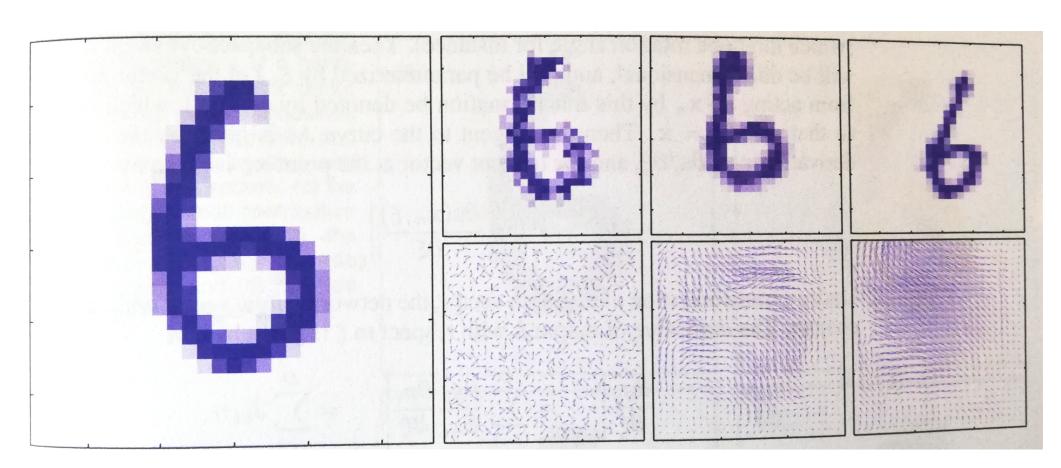
3 8 6 9

what kind of **symmetries** must we built-in in our ML classifier model?

what kind of **symmetries** must we built-in in our ML classifier model?

- Invariance under translations
- Invariance under scaling
- Invariance under small rotations
- Invariance under smearing
- Invariance under elastic deformations





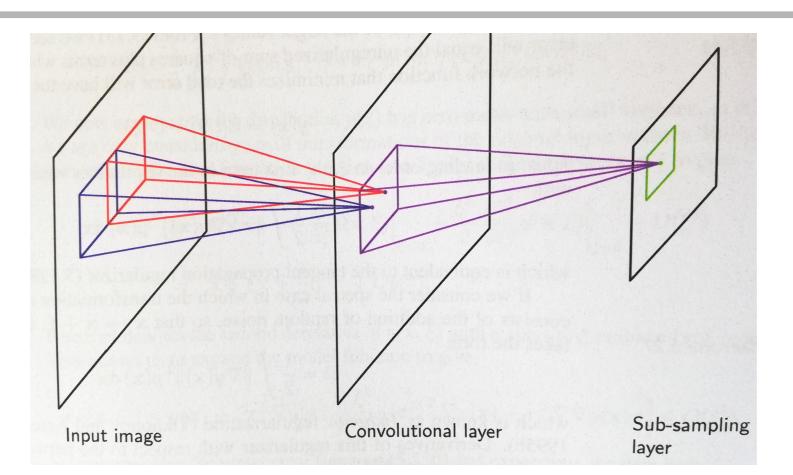
Convolutional Neural Networks

the simplest approach would be to input the images to a **fully connected NN** which given enough training data (and time) would **learn the symmetries by example**

however this way a crucial property is ignored: **nearby pixels are strongly correlated** we should aim instead first to **identify local features** that depend on small subregions

afterwards such local features can be combined into higher-level ones

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) are architectures that take **advantage of this additional high-level structures** that all-to-all coupled networks fail to exploit

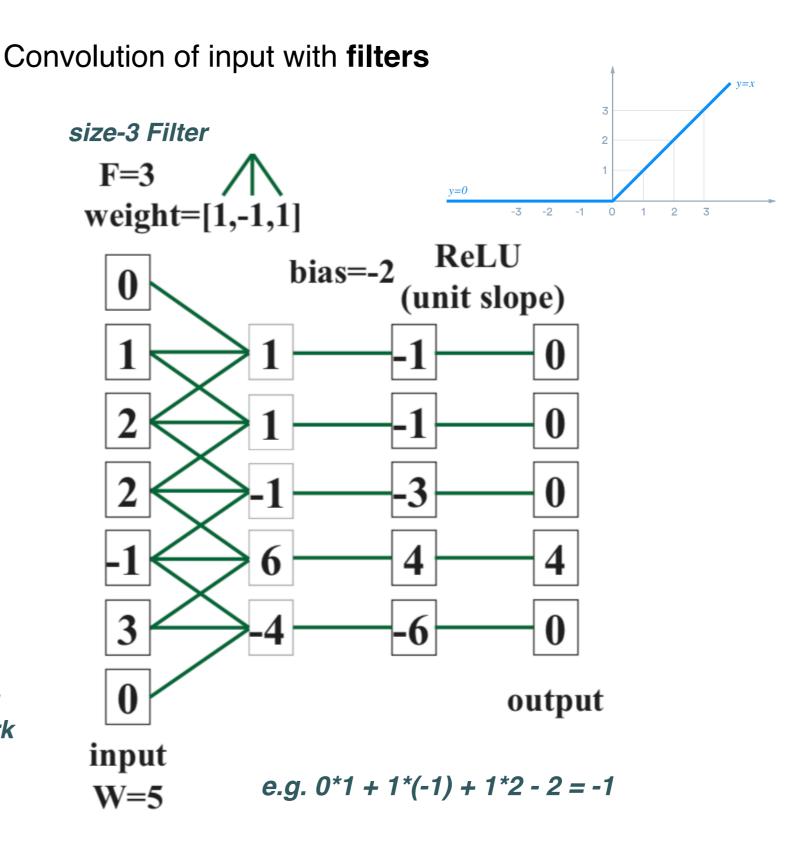


Convolutional Neural Networks

CNNs are composed by two kinds of layers

example of convolutional layer

note that convolution changes the depth, but not the height and width of the network



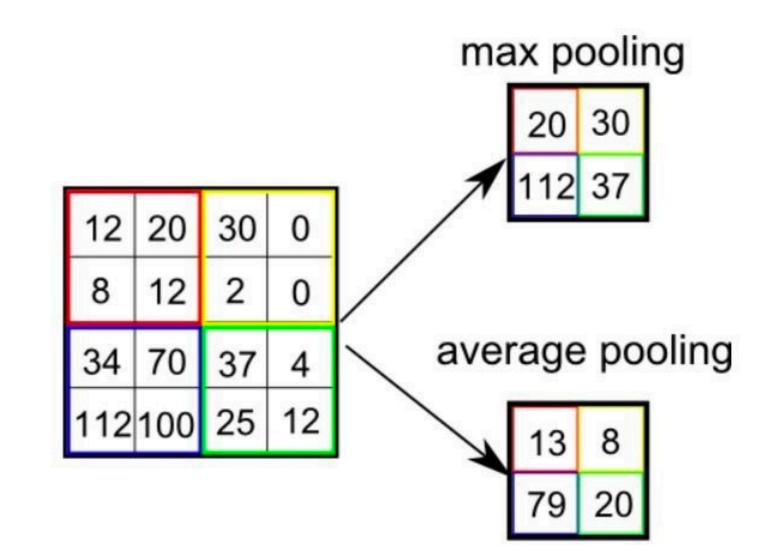
Convolutional Neural Networks

CNNs are composed by two kinds of layers

Pooling layer that coarse-grains the input while maintaining locality and spatial structure

e.g. MaxPool, the spatial dimensions are coarse-grained by replacing a small region by single neuron whose output is maximum value of the output in the region

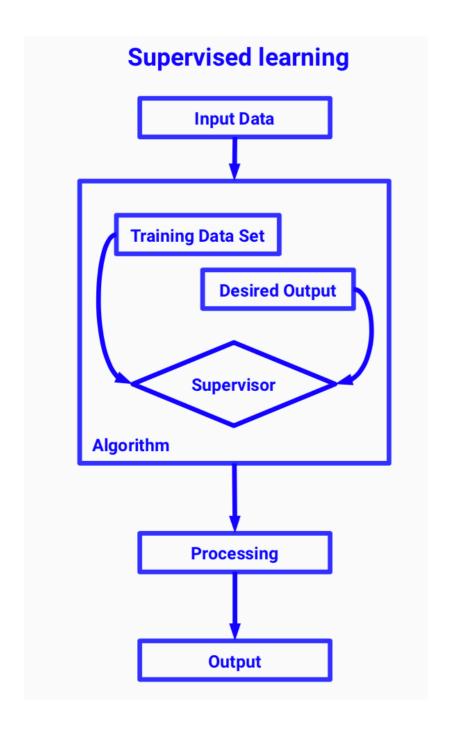
in average pooling, one averages over output in region

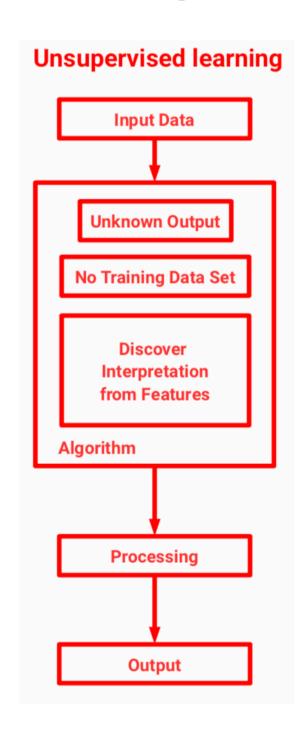


Juan Rojo

Reinforcement Learning

Supervised vs Unsupervised Learning







Reinforcement Learning

So far we have considered two main paradigms in Machine Learning problems

Supervised Learning: starting from a training dataset with labelled examples, $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1,N}$, produce a model f(x) that predicts and generalises the info in the training sample. The labels y_i can be continuous (underlying law is function) or discrete (classification)

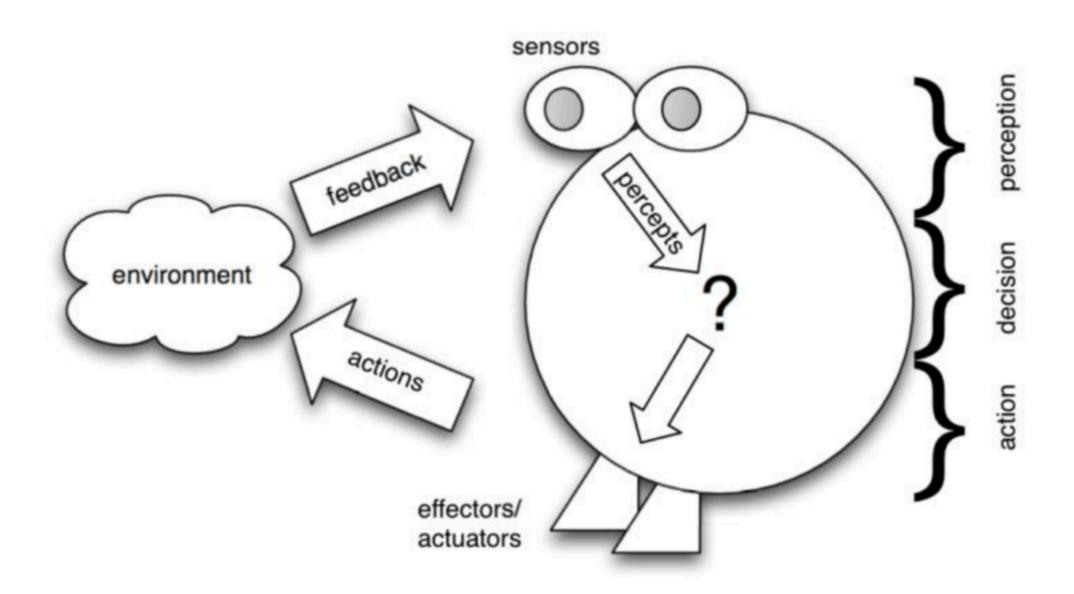
Unsupervised Learning: starting from a training dataset with **unlabelled examples**, $\{x_i\}_{i=1,N}$, produce a **model** that takes a sample as input and as output produces the solution of a practical problem, such as **clustering**, **dimensional reduction**, or **outlier detection**

now we want to discuss a third ML paradigm

Reinforcement Learning: given a complex task in a complex environment (dynamic, non deterministic, only partly accessible) train an agent that carry out autonomous action in this environment and complete the requested task

Agents in Reinforcement Learning

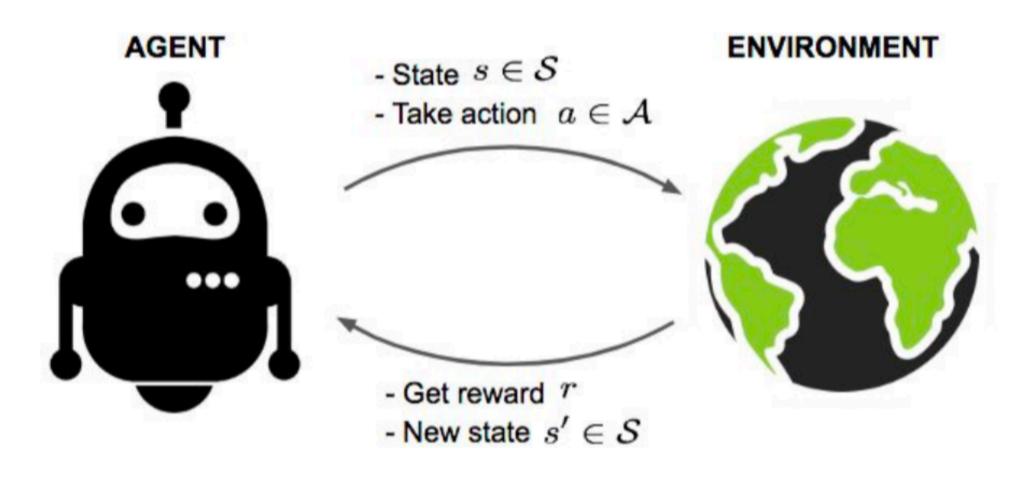
In the context of **Reinforcement Learning**, an **agent** is a computer system capable **autonomous action** in some environment, in order to achieve its delegated goals



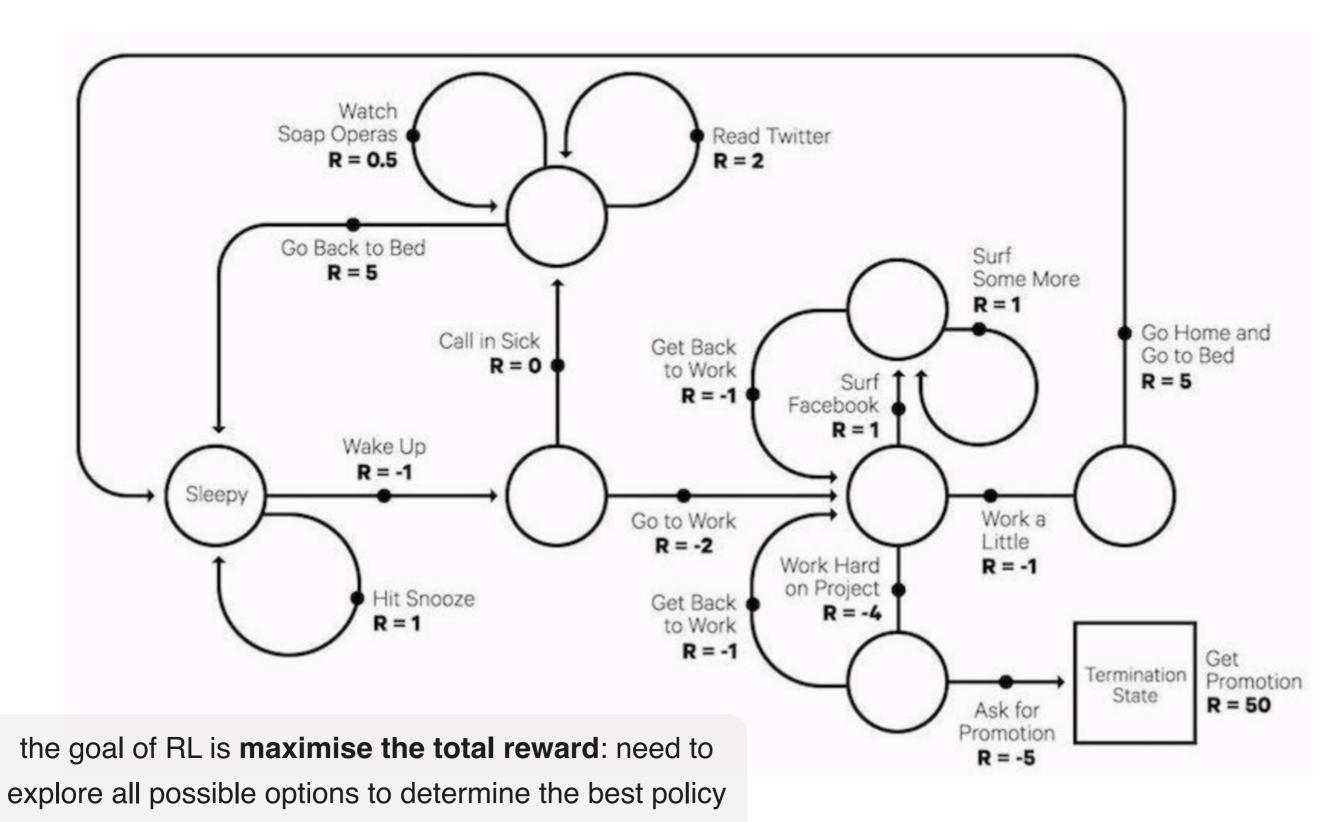
Agents in Reinforcement Learning

The ultimate goal of **Reinforcement Learning** is to

design an agent that **performs complex tasks** and **takes autonomous action** to fulfil its design goals, in an environment that is: partly inaccessible, non-deterministic, non-episodic, dynamic and continuous (*i.e.* the real world!).



A Reinforcement Learning system

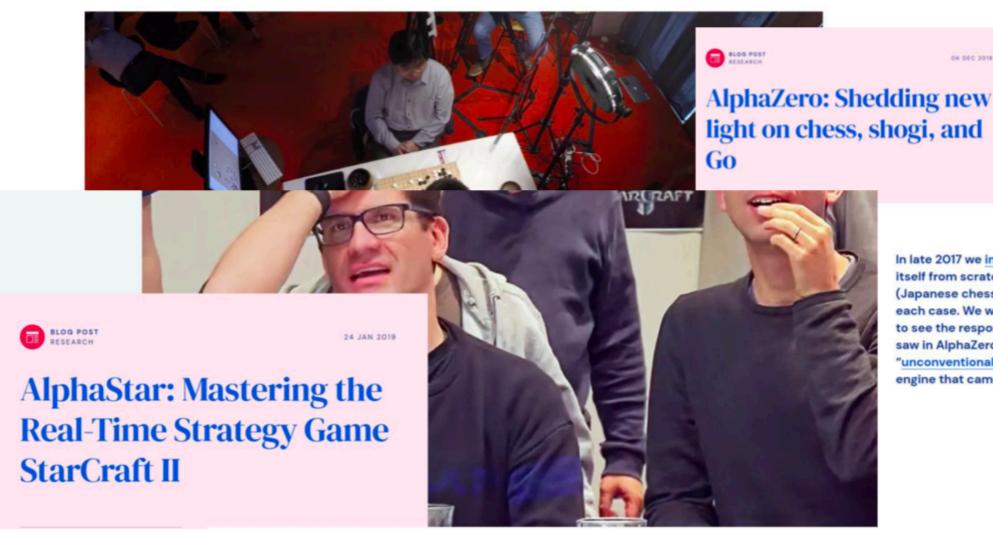


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for each action that it might need to carry

Reinforcement Learning for Games

AlphaGo: using machine learning to master the ancient game of Go



In late 2017 we introduced AlphaZero, a single system that taught itself from scratch how to master the games of chess, shogi (Japanese chess), and Go, beating a world-champion program in each case. We were excited by the preliminary results and thrilled to see the response from members of the chess community, who saw in AlphaZero's games a ground-breaking, highly dynamic and "unconventional" style of play that differed from any chess playing engine that came before it.

06 DEC 2018

Reinforcement Learning for Games



REINFORCEMENT LEARNING DEMO

Adversarial Learning and Generative Adversarial Networks

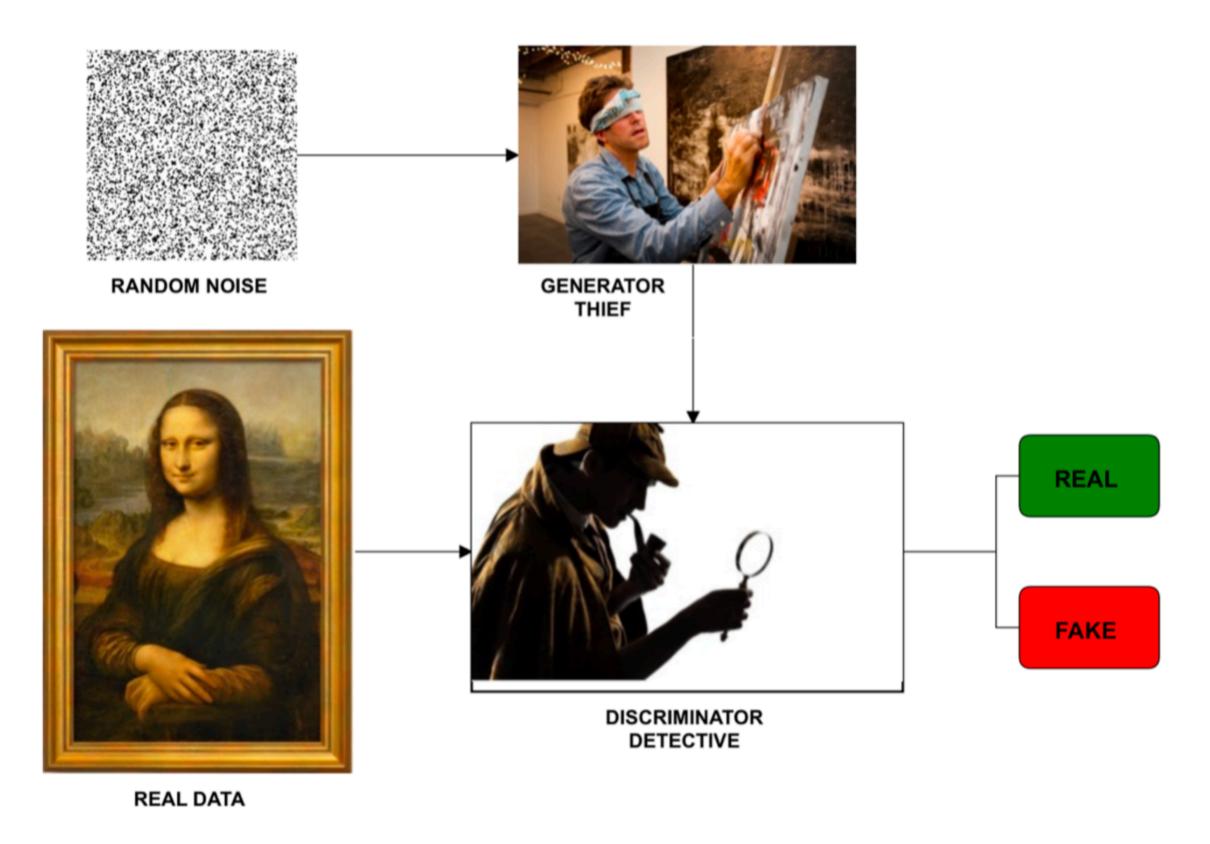
Generative adversarial networks

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) are deep neural network architectures, composed by two independent NNs which compete against each other

- (1) A generator G NN that creates (samples) pseudo-data by inferring the probability distribution associated to the training dataset
- § (2) A discriminator D NN which determines the probability of a given sample arises from the actual training data rather than having been produced by G

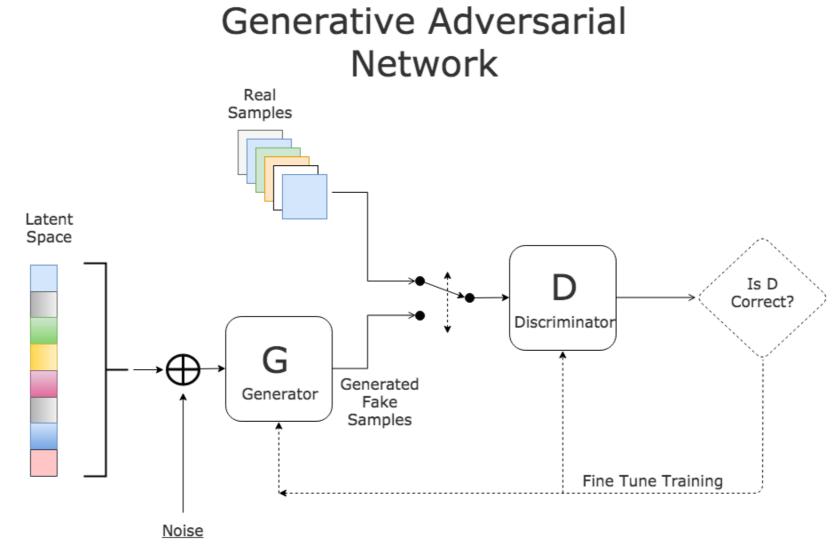
the generator network **G** should be trained to maximise the probability that the discriminator network **D** makes a mistake: that is, **G** should generate pseudo-data samples that are virtually **indistinguishable** from the actual data

Generative adversarial networks



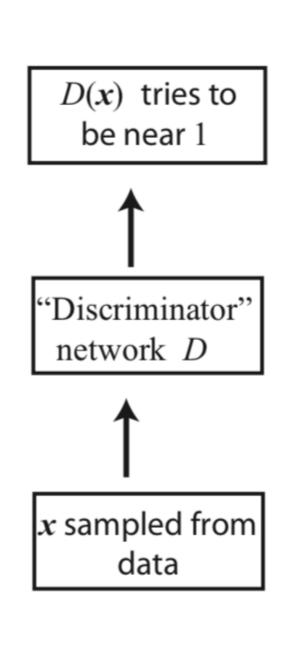
Generative Adversarial Networks

- Architecture for an unsupervised neural network training (unlabelled samples)
- Based on two independent nets that work separately and act as adversaries:
 - from the Discriminator (D) undergoes training and plays the role of classifier
 - the Generator (G) and is tasked to generate random samples that resemble real samples with a twist rendering them as fake samples.



GAN training

the generator and discriminator are sequentially trained and iterated until convergence is achieved, at this point **D** cannot tell apart the pseudo-data from **G** from the real data



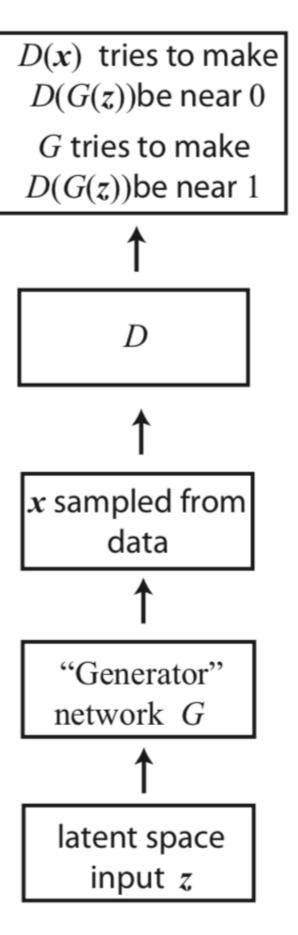


Image generation with GANs





https://thispersondoesnotexist.com/

Generative Adversarial Networks



Part II

ML for Electron Microscopy

Deep Learning for background subtraction

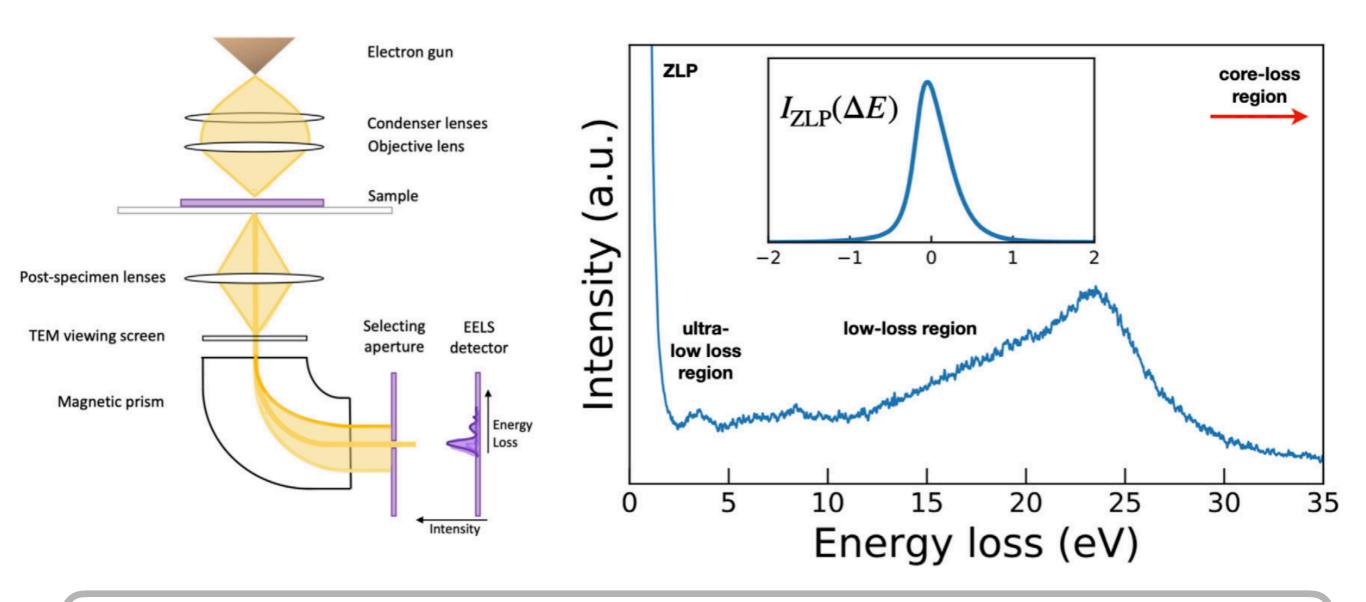
results based on:

- ☑ Roest, van Heijst, Maduro, Rojo, Conesa-Boj,

 Ultramicroscopy (2021)
- van Heijst, Mukai, Okunishi, Hashiguchi, Maduro, Roest, Rojo, Conesa-Boj, *Annalen der Physiek* (2021)
- ☑ Postmes, Brokkelkamp, van Heijst, ter Hoeve, Maduro, Rojo, Conesa-Boj, in preparation

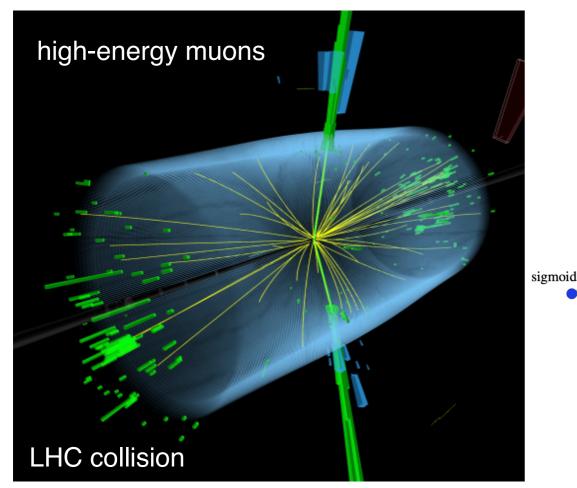
Electron Energy Loss Spectroscopy

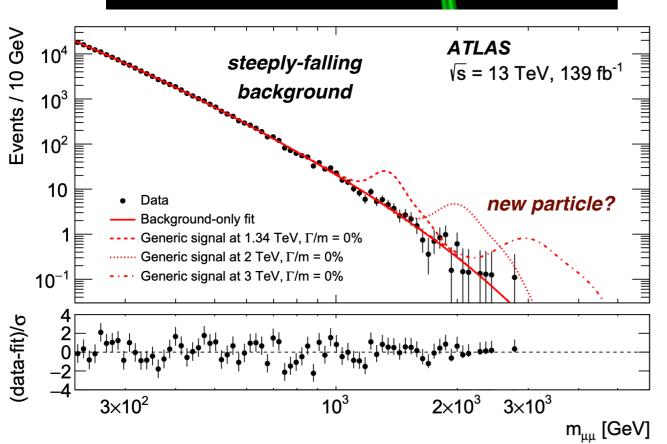
EELS: monitor **energy losses** suffered by the electrons from a Transmission Electron Microscope (TEM) beam upon **interaction with the sample**

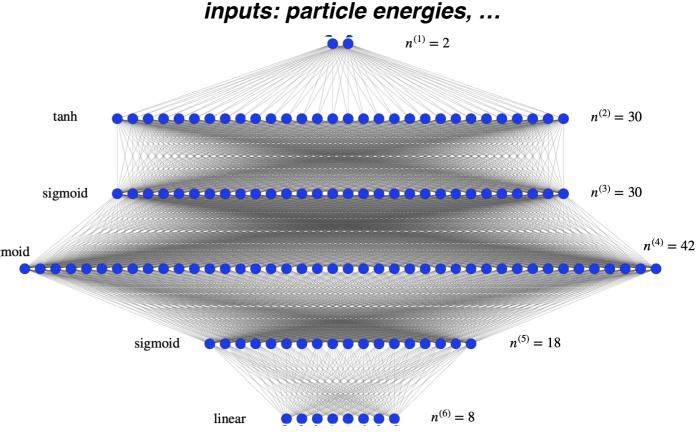


- Solution: parametrise backgrounds from data using Deep Neural Networks and Monte Carlo sampling to remove them in a model-independent manner

ML-driven background subtraction in HEP



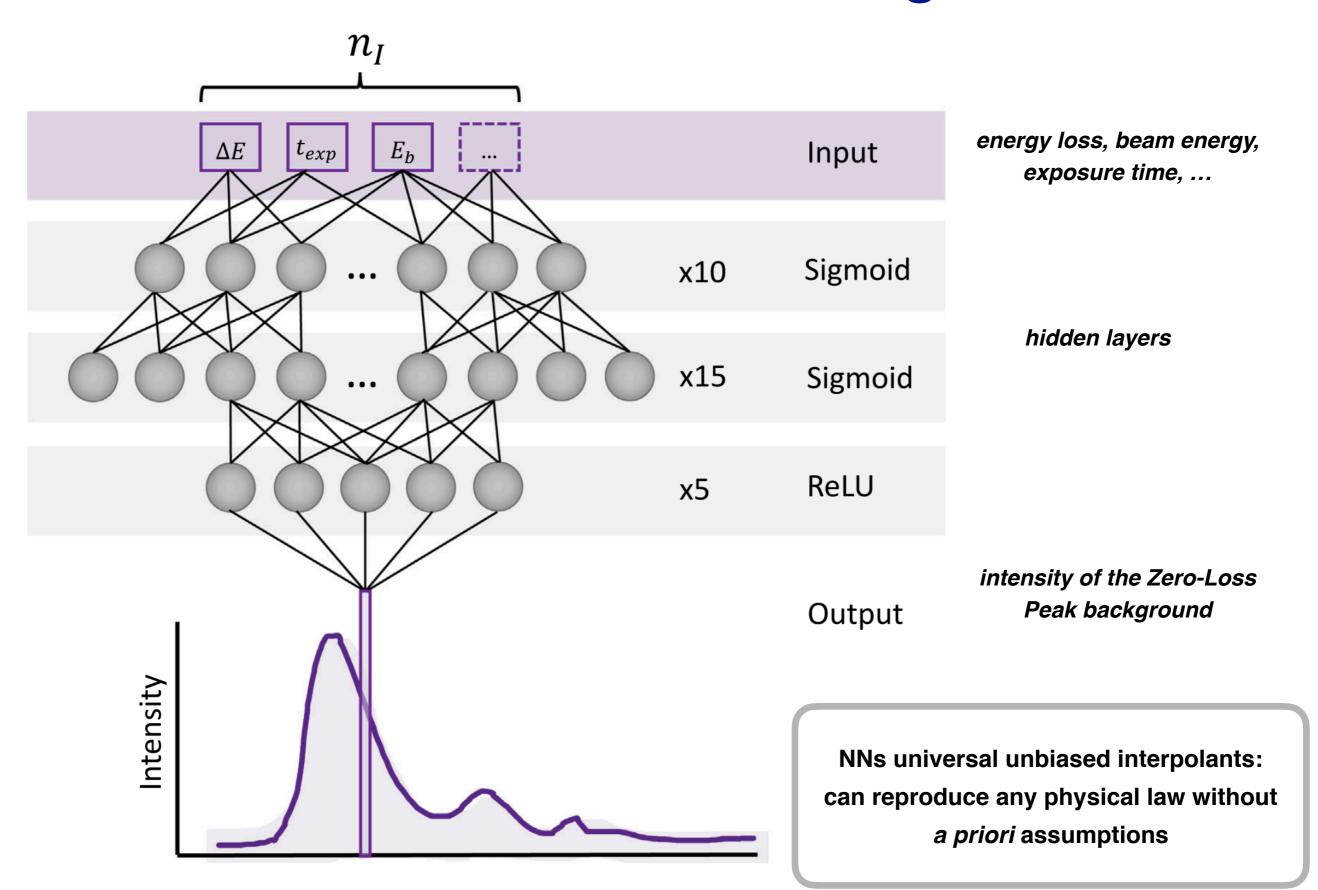




outputs: data-driven background model

- Learn from data underlying physical laws and parametrise them with neural nets
- Estimate **model uncertainties** from Monte Carlo replica method: train a large number of models on *fake replicas* of actual data

A ML model for EELS backgrounds



The Monte Carlo replica method

Generate Monte Carlo **replicas of the original data points** with multi-Gaussian distribution with central values and covariance matrices taken from the input measurements

$$I_{\mathrm{ZLP},i}^{(\mathrm{art})(k)} = I_{\mathrm{ZLP},i}^{(\mathrm{exp})} + r_i^{(\mathrm{stat},k)} \sigma_i^{(\mathrm{stat})} + \sum_{j=1}^{n_{\mathrm{sys}}} r_{i,j}^{(\mathrm{sys},k)} \sigma_{i,j}^{(\mathrm{sys})}, \quad \forall i, \quad k = 1, \dots, N_{\mathrm{rep}},$$

Frain a NN model on each replica from the minimisation of the log-likelihood

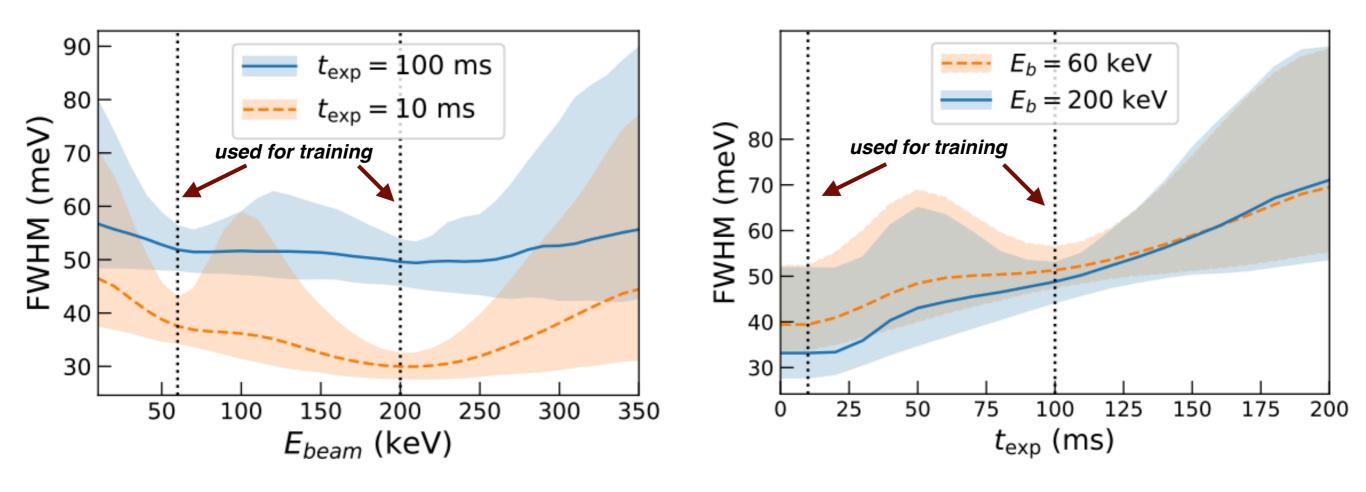
$$E^{(k)}\left(\{\theta^{(k)}\}\right) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{dat}}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\text{dat}}} \left(\frac{I_{\text{ZLP},i}^{(\text{art})(k)} - I_{\text{ZLP},i}^{(\text{mod})}\left(\{\theta^{(k)}\}\right)}{\sigma_i^{(\text{exp})}} \right)^2,$$

We end up with a sampling of the **probability density in the space of NN models**, from which we can compute e.g. the variance of the predicted ZLP intensity for arbitrary inputs

$$\sigma_{I_{\text{ZLP}}}^{(\text{mod})}(\{z_1\}) = \left(\frac{1}{N_{\text{rep}}-1} \sum_{k=1}^{N_{\text{rep}}} \left(I_{\text{ZLP}}^{(\text{mod})(k)} - \left\langle I_{\text{ZLP}}^{(\text{mod})} \right\rangle\right)\right)^{1/2}$$

Extrapolation to new TEM operation conditions

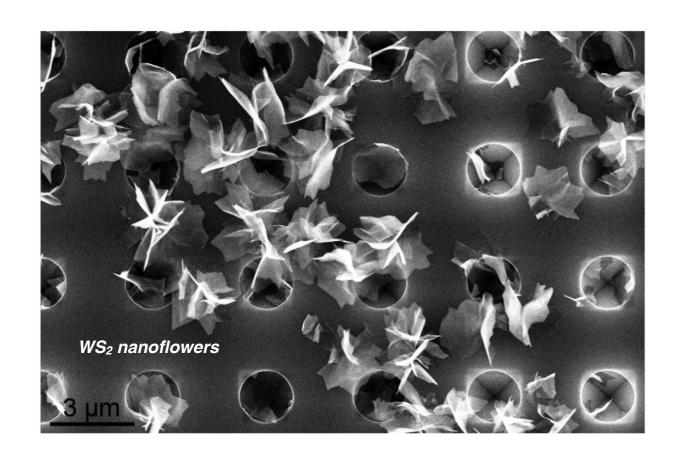
Key property of ML: **prediction** to different ranges of input parameters

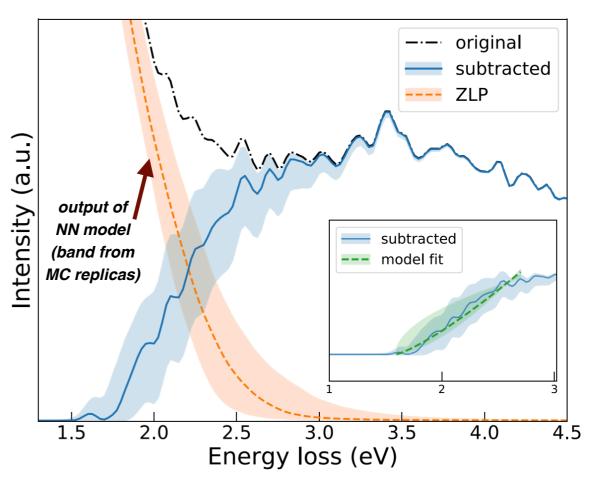


- Train ZLP model for specific values of TEM operation parameters, e.g. electron beam energy and then inter/extrapolate outside training range
- The model uncertainties increase when our prediction is not reliable and more data needed
- ☑ Important: no assumptions of functional dependence of background model with input variables

 or approx linear dependence with to the been learned for the lange of the

Band gap extraction in polytypic WS₂



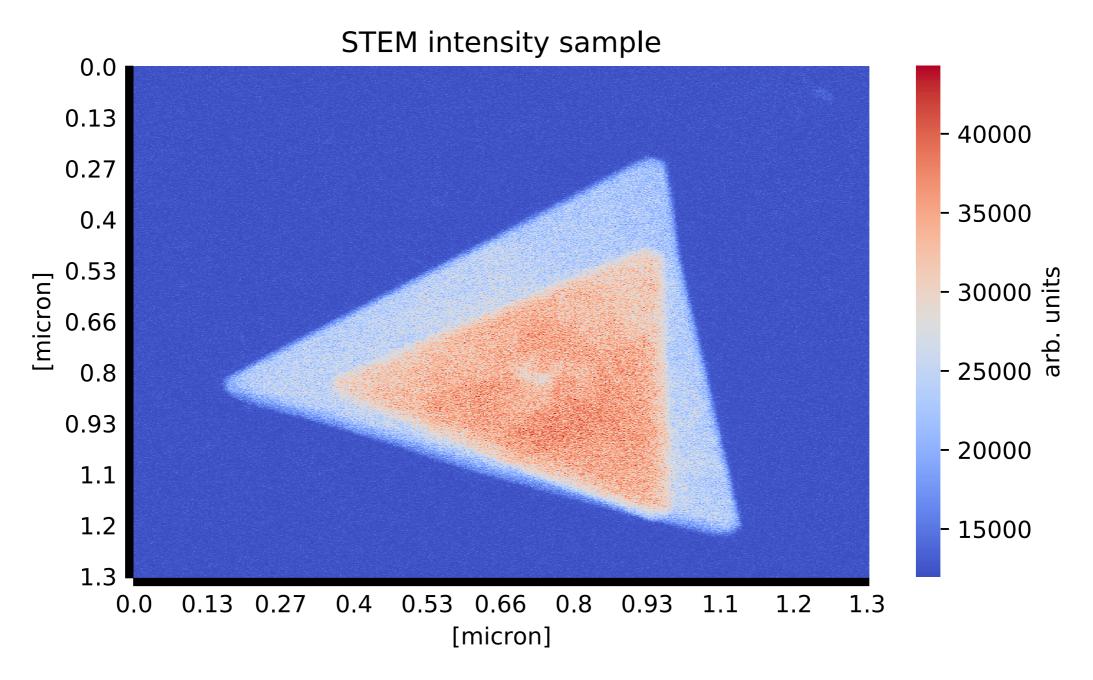


- Apply to nanoflowers composed by 2H/3R polytypic WS₂
- First extraction of band gap in this material from fit to subtracted EEL spectra

$$I_{\text{inel}}(\Delta E) \simeq A \left(\Delta E - E_{\text{BG}}\right)^b \qquad E_{\text{BG}} = 1.6^{+0.3}_{-0.2} \,\text{eV} \,, \quad b = 1.3^{+0.3}_{-0.7} \,.$$

ML-subtracted spectra make possible mapping exciton transitions down to 1.5 eV

ML analysis of spectral images



- ☑ EELS spectral image contains up to O(10⁵) individual spectra
- ☑ Use unsupervised learning (*K-means clustering*) to identify clusters of pixels with comparable sample thickness and combine them for the (supervised) NN training
- Simultaneous determination of physical properties across the **whole nanostructure** with their **uncertainties**: thickness, band gap, position and width of plasmonic and excitonic resonances,...

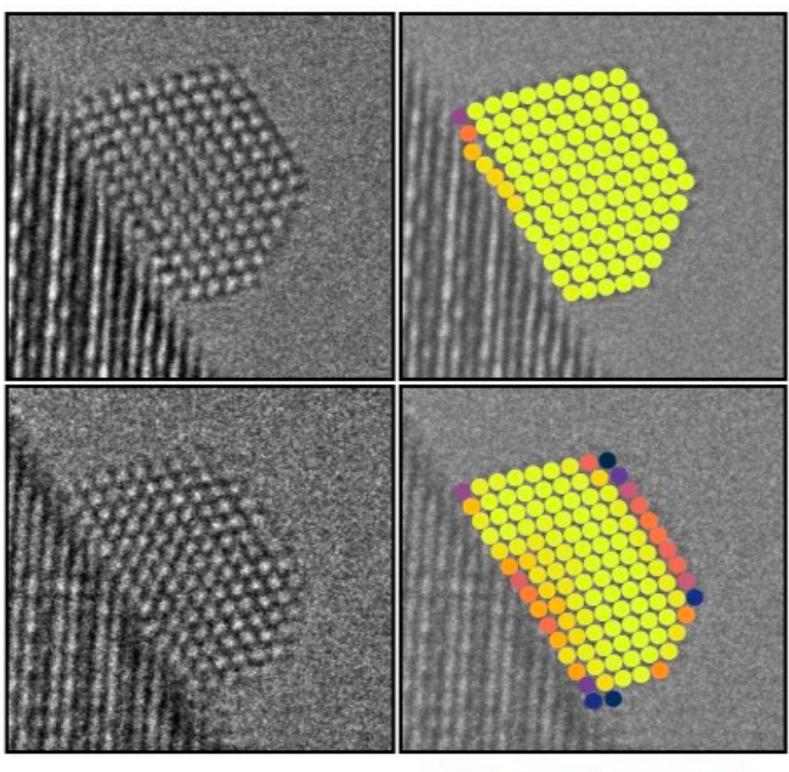
Automated defect identification from STEM images

Automated defect identification

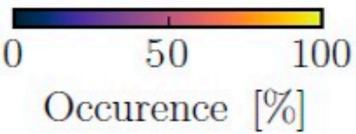
- Structural defects and impurities in the crystalline lattice of materials can affect properties and performance, for example, degrading or enhancing electric transport.
- ☑ Defect identification and classification in TEM measurements usually done ``by eye", inspecting EM images one by one.
- ML can be used to formulate strategies that make possible automatically identifying defects in TEM images, for example using Convolutional Neural Networks
- A key ingredient is the **training dataset**, which can be composed by either labelled TEM images or simulated data using theory calculations
- ☑ Carefully monitoring the performance is crucial to demonstrate that defect identification is robust and efficient

Automated defect identification

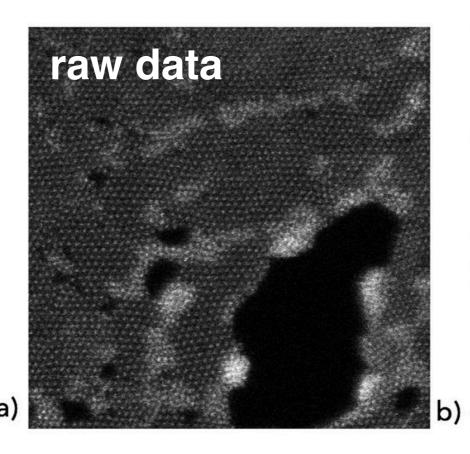
- A CNN is used to identify the atomic columns in the bulk of a nanoparticle.
- At the surface of the particle, the atomic columns continuously shift around giving new surface configurations
- The CNN predicts which local structures at the atomic level are more likely to appear

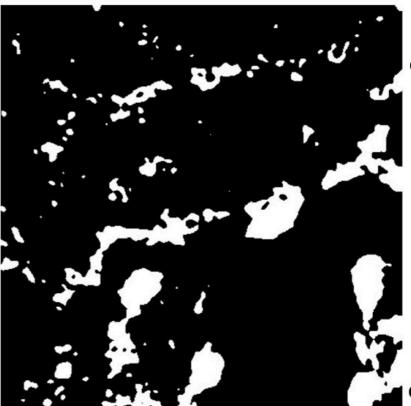


Advanced Theory and Simulations 2018, 1800037 (2018), J. Madsen, P. Liu, J. Kling, J. B. Wagner, T. W. Hansen, O. Winther, J. Schiøtz, 'A Deep Learning Approach to Identify Local Structures in Atomic-Resolution Transmission Electron Microscopy Images



Automated defect identification



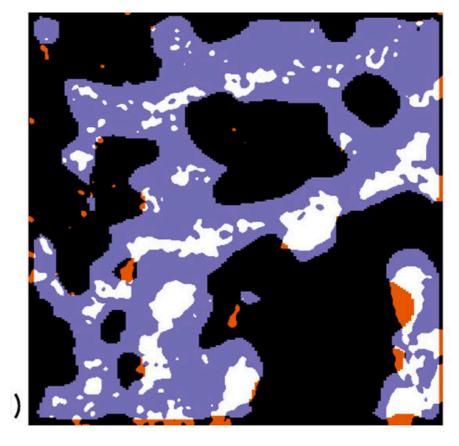


human classification

Multi-node **Evolutionary** Neural Networks for Deep Learning (MENNDL): design an optimal deep learning network to extract structural information from raw atomic-resolution TEM data

Achieves within a few hours performance comparable with that of human expert inspection

R.M. Patton, J.T. Johnston, S.R. Young, et al., "167-PFlops deep learning for electron microscopy: From learning physics to atomic manipulation." SC'18: Proceedings of the International Conference for High Performance Computing, Networking, Storage and Analysis, Dallas, TX (2018).



white: defects

orange: false negatives

purple: false positives

ML-based classification

Genetic Algorithms

GAs combine **stochastic and deterministic ingredients** to explore the model parameter space and minimise the cost function

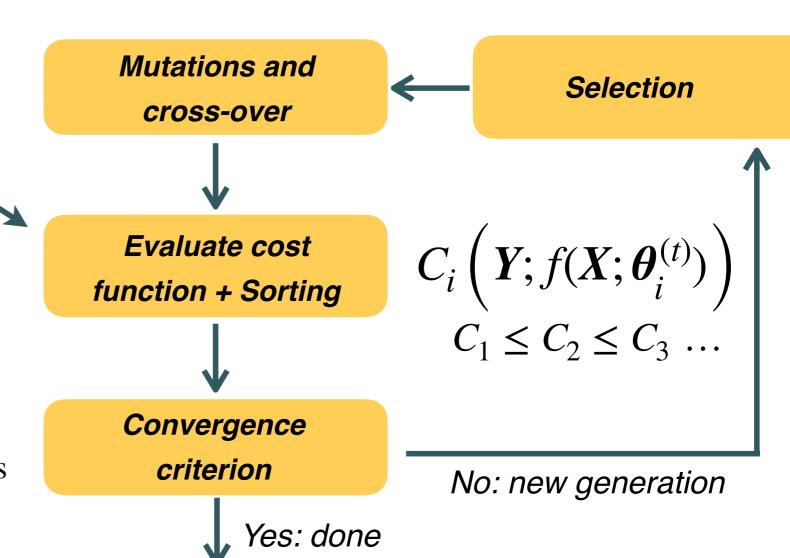
Model parameters

Initial population (random sampling)

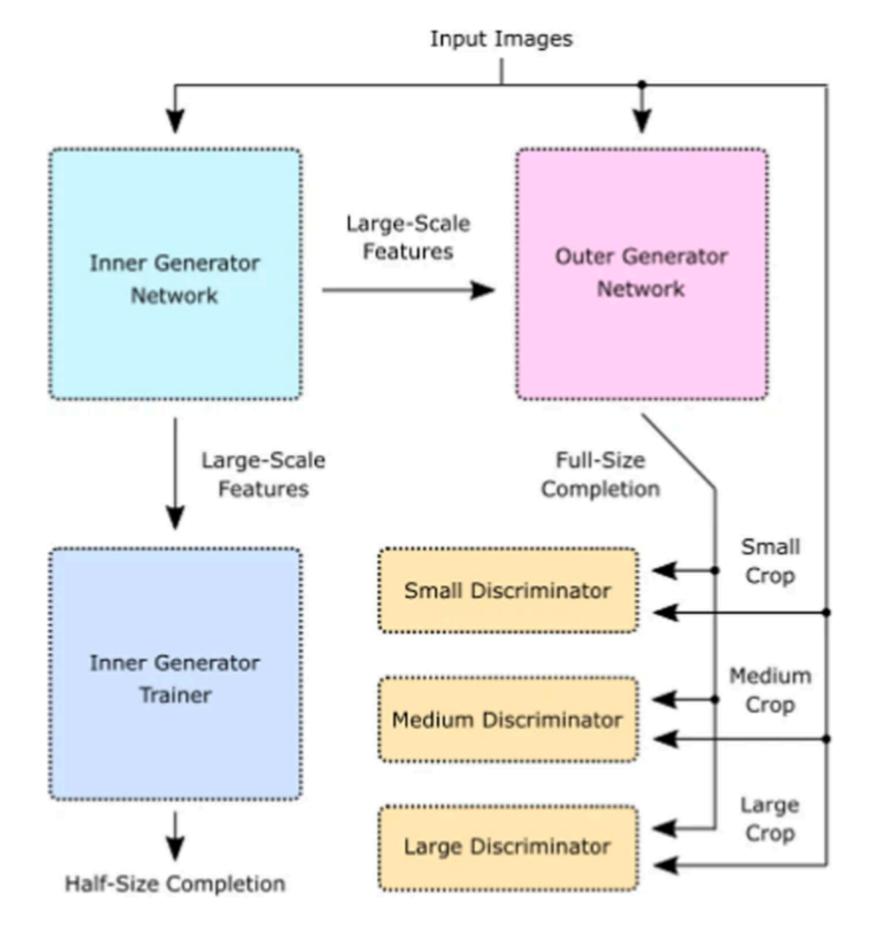
$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{(0)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{(0)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_3^{(0)}, \dots$$

e.g. $C_1 \leq C_{\text{thres}}$

advantages of GA; only local values of cost function required (**no gradients**), built-in stochasticity, easier to avoid local minima



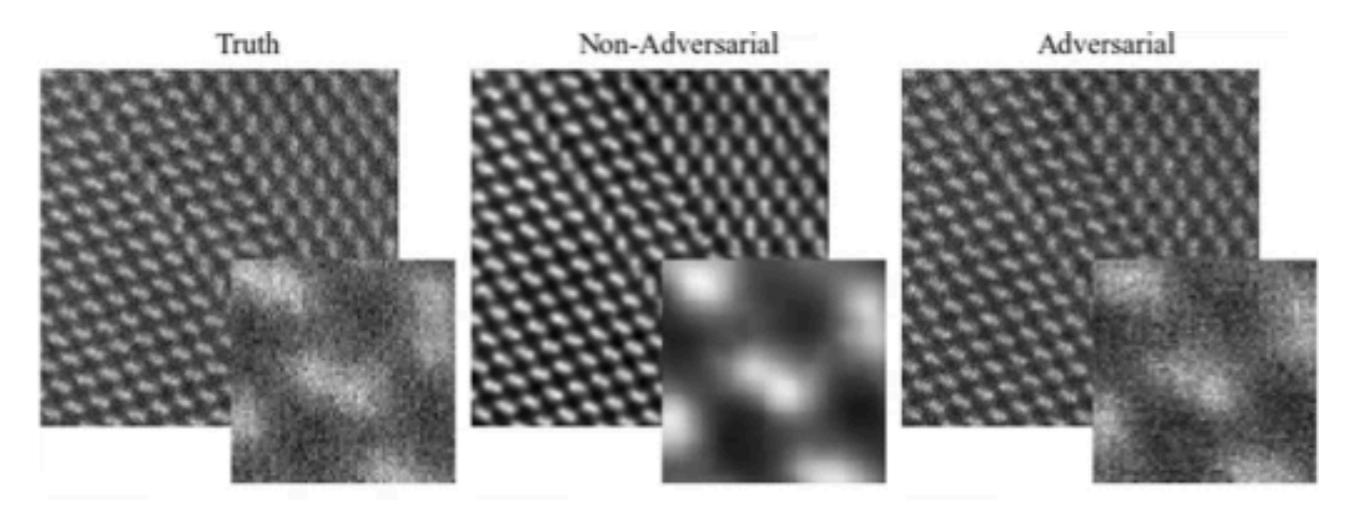
GANs for TEM



Partial Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy with Deep Learning, <u>Jeffrey M. Ede</u> & <u>Richard Beanland</u>, <u>Scientific Reports</u>, 10, Article number: 8332 (2020)

Realistic images from partial scans

- GANs ML architectures can be exploited as compressed sensing algorithms
- They allow decreasing electron microscope scan time and electron beam exposure
- with at the same time ensuring with minimal information loss.



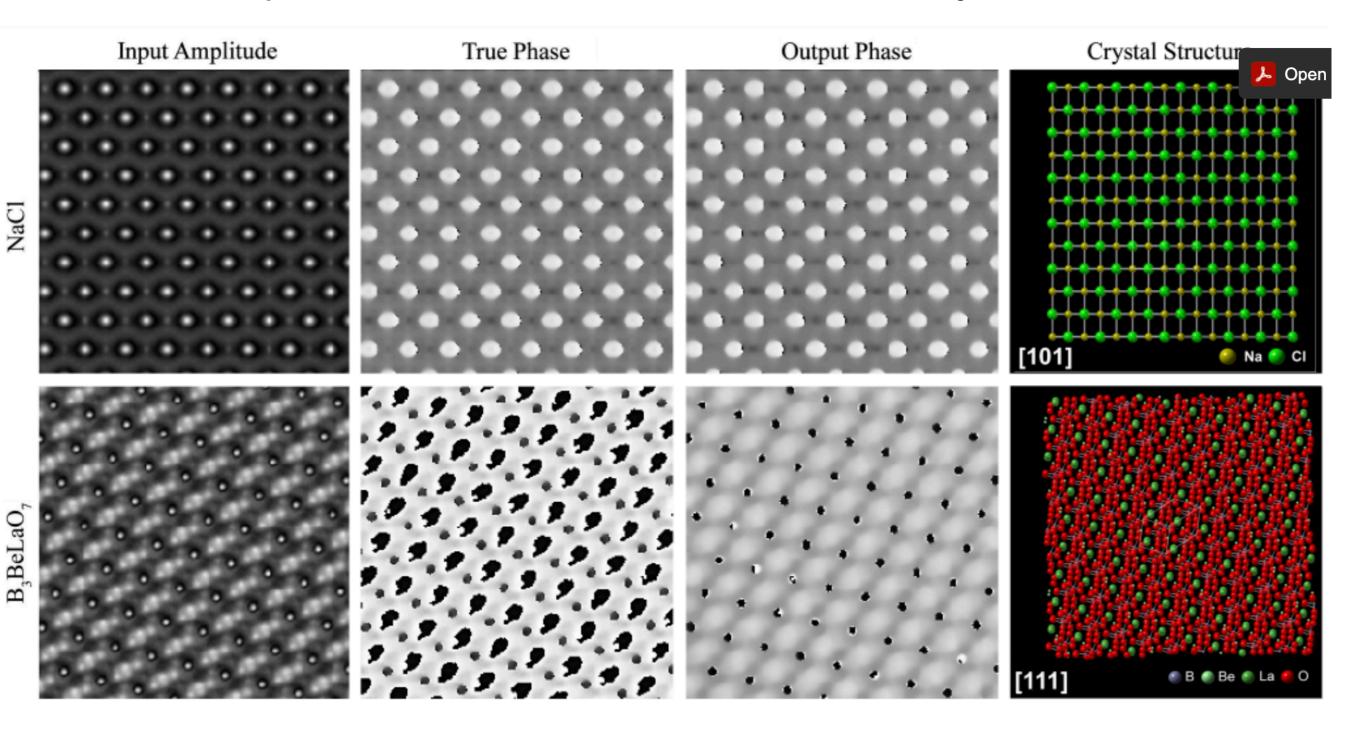
Goal: reconstruct "Truth" (based on full scan) from partial scan. Much better performance using GANs

Complete realistic images from partial scans using GANs

Predicting features

Feature prediction

- ☑ Conventional transmission electron microscopy (CTEM) records only the intensity, not the phase, of an image.
- ML can recover phases from CTEM intensities for new datasets after training

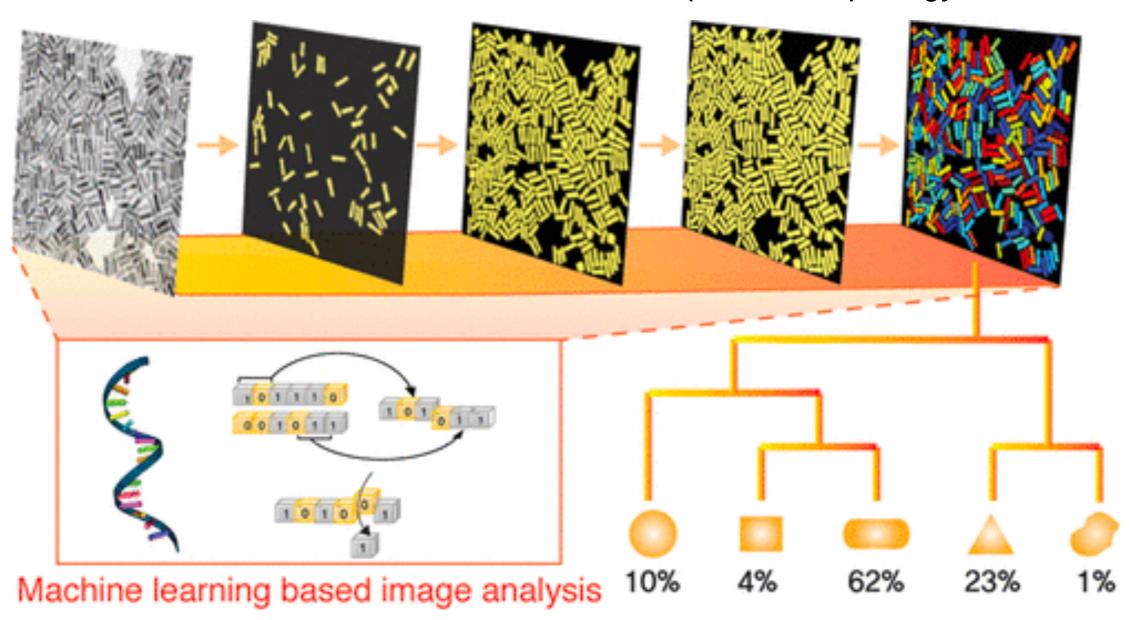


Ede et al, arXiv:2001.10938v2 [eess.IV]

Feature prediction

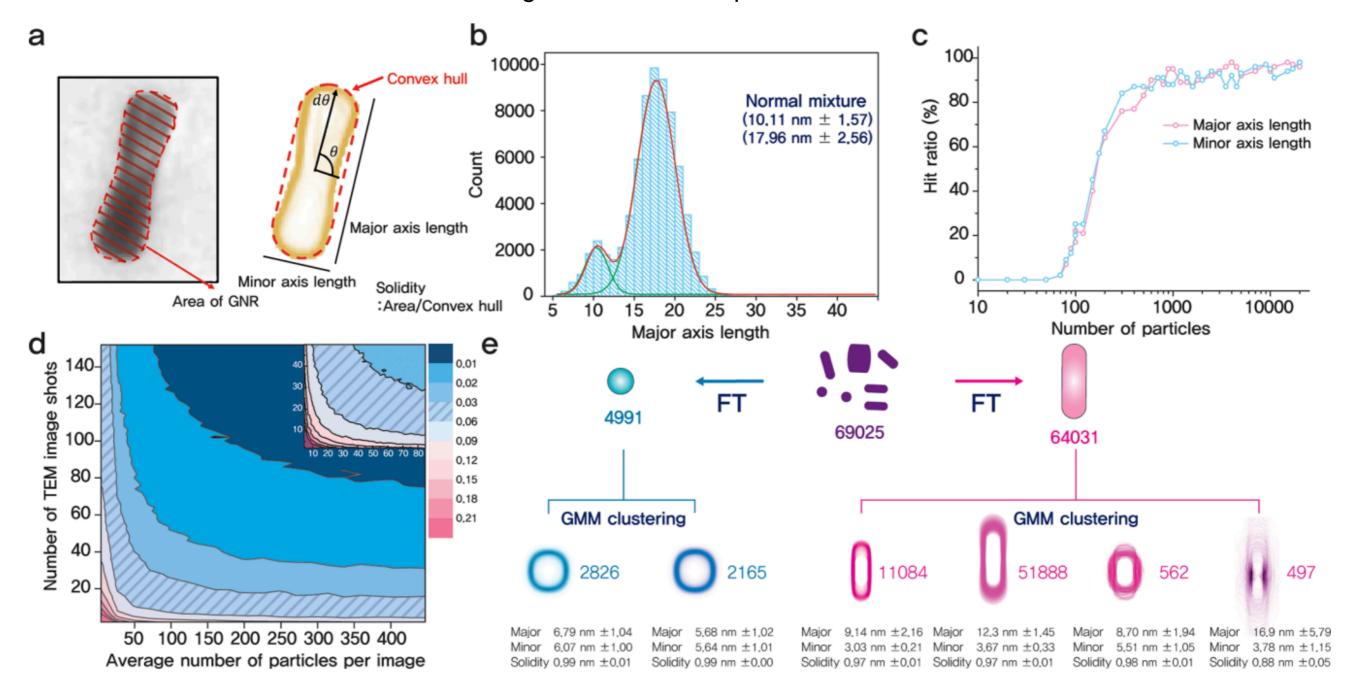
https://pubs.acs.org/doi/abs/10.1021/acsnano.0c06809

Automated classification of nanoparticle morphology



Lee at al, ACS Nano 2020, 14, 12, 17125

Genetic Algorithms combined with Gaussian Mixture Models for classification and categorisation of nanoparticles



Clustering: example of unsupervised learning, where the training samples do not have labels attached: we need to identify groups of input data into clusters with similar properties