

Regularization Techniques for Tomography Problems

Chapter 12.1 and 12.2

Yiqiu Dong

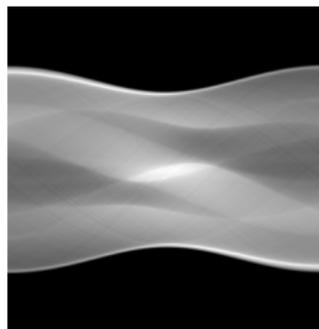
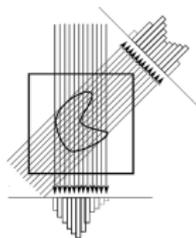
DTU Compute
Technical University of Denmark

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CT reconstruction



Object
 \bar{x}



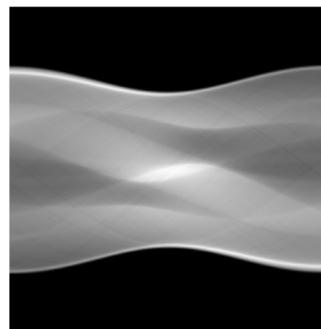
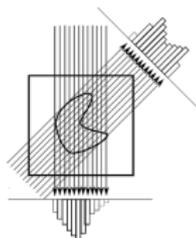
Measurements
 $\mathbf{b} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\bar{x})$

- **Forward Problem:** Send X-rays through the object at different angles, and measure the damping of X-rays.

CT reconstruction



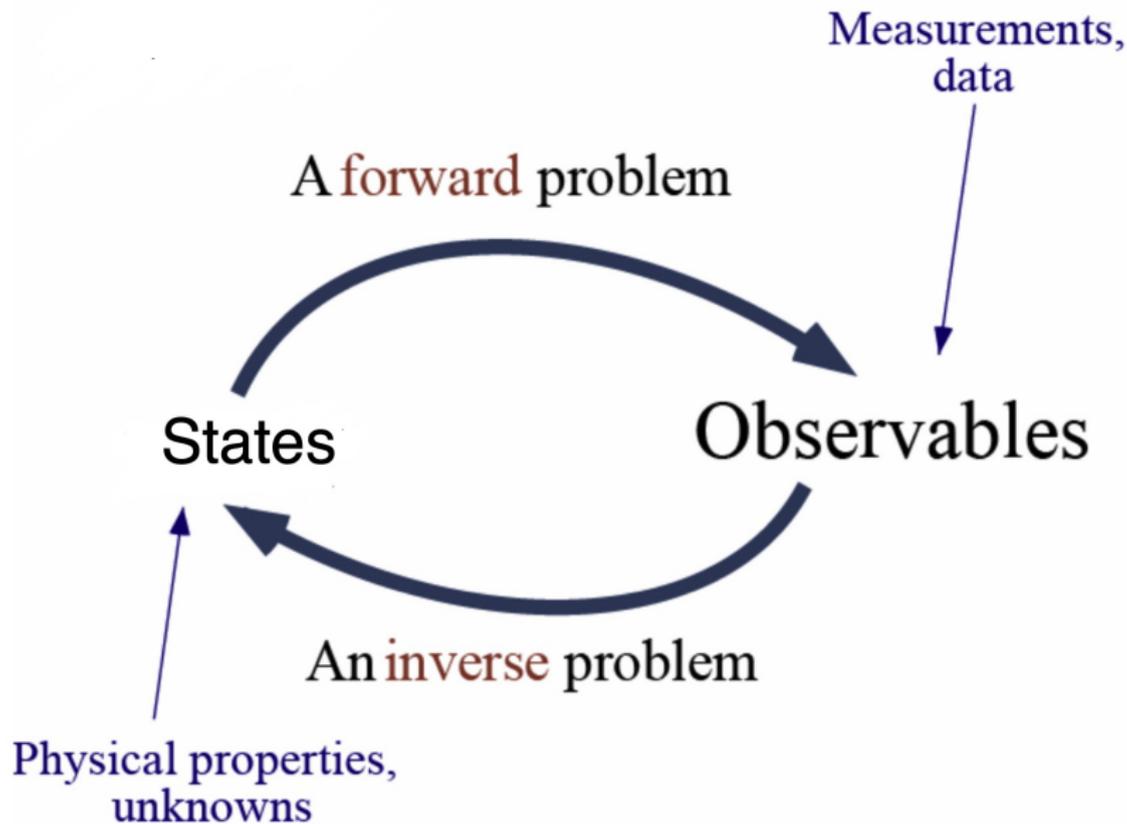
Object
 \bar{x}



Measurements
 $\mathbf{b} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\bar{x})$

- **Our Problem:** Reconstruct \bar{x} from \mathbf{b} with given \mathbf{A} .
- It is a highly **ill-posed** inverse problem.

Inverse problems



Questions need be considered

- Why are inverse problems difficult?
 - ▶ Forward models are not explicitly invertible
 - ▶ Errors in the measurements (and also in the forward model) can lead to errors in the solution

Questions need be considered

- Why are inverse problems difficult?
 - ▶ Forward models are not explicitly invertible
 - ★ Existence: Does any state fit the measurement?
 - ★ Uniqueness: Is there a unique state vector fits the measurement?
 - ▶ Errors in the measurements (and also in the forward model) can lead to errors in the solution
 - ★ Stability: Can small changes in the measurement produce large changes in the solution?

Hadamard condition

A problem is called **well-posed** if

- 1 there exists a solution to the problem (**existence**),
- 2 there is at most one solution to the problem (**uniqueness**),
- 3 the solution depends continuously on the measurement (**stability**).

Otherwise the problem is called **ill-posed**.

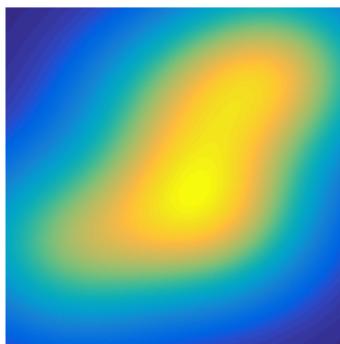
Example: Ill-posedness

- If too many measurements and no consistence, the solution of $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ does not exist.
- If no enough measurements, the solution of $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ is not unique.

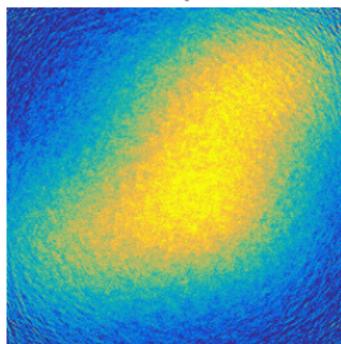
Example: Ill-posedness

- If too many measurements and no consistence, the solution of $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ does not exist.
- If no enough measurements, the solution of $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ is not unique.
- Even we have a unique least-squares solution, it can be not good enough due to lack of the stability.

Ground truth



Least squares



More questions need be considered

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- How can we solve an ill-posed inverse problem?

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- How can we solve an ill-posed inverse problem?
 - ▶ Does the measurements actually contain the information we want?
 - ▶ Which solution do we want?
 - ▶ The measurement may not be enough by itself to completely determine the unknown. What other prior information of the “unknown” do we have?

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- Why are inverse problems difficult?
 ⇐ It's often ILL-POSED!
- How can we solve an ill-posed inverse problem?
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 - ▶ Which solution do we want?
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 ⇐ We can use REGULARIZATION techniques!

Regularization techniques

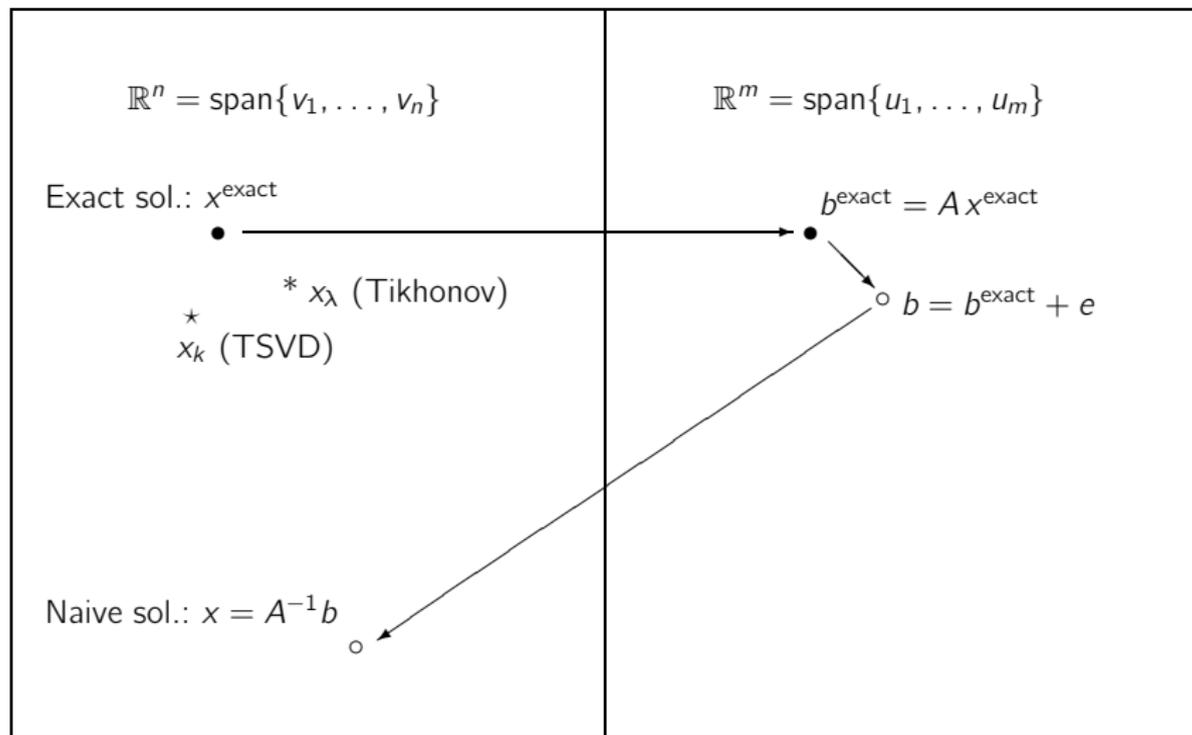
Consider to solve an ill-posed inverse problem:

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\bar{\mathbf{x}})$$

Regularization: Approximate the inverse operator, \mathbf{A}^{-1} , by a family of stable operators \mathcal{R}_α , where α is the regularization parameter.

We need: With the noise-free measurement we can find appropriate parameters α such that $\mathbf{x}_\alpha = \mathcal{R}_\alpha(\mathbf{b})$ is a good approximation of the true solution $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$.

Illustration of the need for regularization



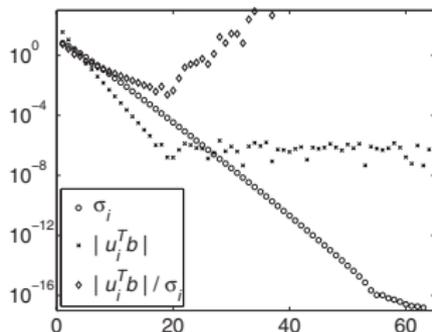
Truncated SVD

Considering the linear inverse problem

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b} \quad \text{with } \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\bar{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{e}.$$

Based on the SVD of \mathbf{A} , the “naive” solution is given by

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \sum_{i=1}^l \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v}_i = \bar{\mathbf{x}} + \sum_{i=1}^l \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{e}}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v}_i$$



Truncated SVD

The solution of Truncated SVD is

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{TSVD}} = V \Sigma_k^\dagger U^\top \mathbf{b} = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v}_i$$

with $\Sigma_k^\dagger = \text{diag}(\sigma_1^{-1}, \dots, \sigma_k^{-1}, 0, \dots, 0)$.

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- **Regularization parameter:**
 k , i.e, the number of SVD components.
- **Advantages:**
 - ▶ Intuitive
 - ▶ Easy to compute, *if we have the SVD*
- **Drawback:**
 - ▶ For large-scale problem, it is infeasible to compute the SVD

Tikhonov regularization

Idea: If we control the norm of the solution, then we should be able to suppress most of the large noise components.

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The Tikhonov solution \mathbf{x}_{Tik} is defined as the solution to

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2 + \alpha \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$

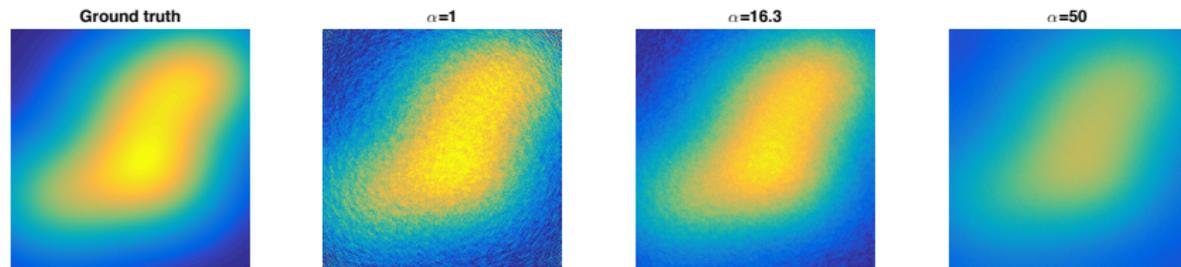
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- **Regularization parameter:** α
- α large: strong regularity, over smoothing.
- α small: good fitting



12.2 Tikhonov Solution

In this exercise, we study the property of the optimization problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2 + \alpha \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$

by calculating the gradient and the Hessian of the objective function.

The solution of Tikhonov regularization

Reformulate as a linear least squares problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \left\| \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} \\ \sqrt{\alpha} \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} - \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{b} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2^2$$

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The normal equation is

$$(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} + \alpha \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b},$$

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The solution is

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{Tik}} = (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} + \alpha \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$$

The solution of Tikhonov regularization

Reformulate as a linear least squares problem

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The normal equation is

$$(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} + \alpha \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b},$$

The solution is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_{\text{Tik}} &= (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} + \alpha \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b} \\ &= \mathbf{V}(\Sigma^2 + \alpha \mathbf{I})^{-1} \Sigma^T \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{b} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\sigma_i(\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{b})}{\sigma_i^2 + \alpha} \mathbf{v}_i \end{aligned}$$

Compare with TSVD

- The solution of TSVD is

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{TSVD}} = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v}_i$$

- The solution of Tikhonov regularization is

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Compare with TSVD

- The solution of TSVD is

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{TSVD}} = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi_i^{\text{TSVD}} \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v}_i$$

$$\text{with } \varphi_i^{\text{TSVD}} = \begin{cases} 1, & 1 \leq i \leq k, \\ 0, & k < i \leq n. \end{cases}$$

- The solution of Tikhonov regularization is

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{Tik}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\sigma_i (\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{b})}{\sigma_i^2 + \alpha} \mathbf{v}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi_i^{\text{Tik}} \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v}_i$$

$$\text{with } \varphi_i^{\text{Tik}} = \frac{\sigma_i^2}{\sigma_i^2 + \alpha} \approx \begin{cases} 1, & \sigma_i \gg \sqrt{\alpha}, \\ \frac{\sigma_i^2}{\alpha}, & \sigma_i \ll \sqrt{\alpha}. \end{cases}$$

Non-negativity and box constraints

- **Non-negativity constrained Tikhonov problem:**

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \geq 0} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2 + \alpha \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$

- **Box constrained Tikhonov problem:**

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in [a, b]^n} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2 + \alpha \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$

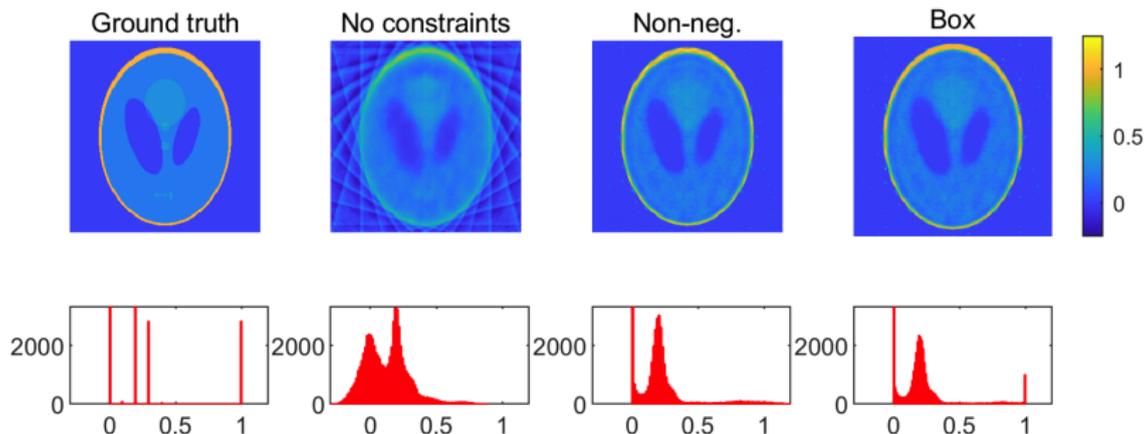
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12.3 Influence of Regularization Parameters on Tikhonov Solutions

We use a very small problem to study the influence of the regularization parameter.

Gaussian noise

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\bar{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{e}$$

where \mathbf{e} denotes additive white Gaussian noise with zero mean and the covariance $\eta^2 \mathbf{I}_m$.

- All elements in \mathbf{e} are independent.
- \mathbf{e} is independent on $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$.
- Each element \mathbf{e}_i can be seen as a Gaussian random variable with mean 0 and variance η^2 .

Maximum likelihood estimate

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\bar{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{e}$$

where \mathbf{e} denotes additive white Gaussian noise with zero mean and the covariance $\eta^2 \mathbf{I}_m$.

- The probability density for observing \mathbf{b} given \mathbf{x} is

$$\pi(\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{x}) = \pi(\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi}\eta)^m} \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2}{2\eta^2}\right), \quad (1)$$

which is called the *likelihood* of \mathbf{x} .

- **Maximum likelihood (ML) estimate** can be obtained by solving:

$$\max_{\mathbf{x}} \pi(\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{x}) \iff \min_{\mathbf{x}} -\log(\pi(\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{x})).$$

- With the likelihood of \mathbf{x} given in (1), we obtain the ML estimation problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2.$$

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MAP estimate

To obtain a stable solution, we can incorporate prior information on $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ by applying Bayes formula:

$$\pi(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{b}) = \frac{\pi(\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{x}) \pi_{\text{prior}}(\mathbf{x})}{\pi(\mathbf{b})} .$$

- $\pi(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{b})$ is the posterior.
- $\pi(\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{x})$ is the likelihood.
- $\pi_{\text{prior}}(\mathbf{x})$ is the prior probability density of \mathbf{x} .
- $\pi(\mathbf{b})$ is the prior probability density of \mathbf{b} .

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Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimate can be obtained by solving:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{x}} \pi(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{b}) &\iff \max_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{\pi(\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{x}) \pi_{\text{prior}}(\mathbf{x})}{\pi(\mathbf{b})}, \\ &\iff \min_{\mathbf{x}} -\log(\pi(\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{x})) - \log(\pi_{\text{prior}}(\mathbf{x})), \end{aligned}$$

Example

If we have

- the **likelihood**: $\pi(\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi}\eta)^m} \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2}{2\eta^2}\right)$ and
- the **prior**: $\pi_{\text{prior}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi}\beta)^n} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\beta^2} \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2\right)$ (Gaussian distribution),

then the **MAP estimate** can be obtained by solving

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 + \alpha \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$

with $\alpha = \eta^2/\beta^2$.

Example

If we have

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- the **prior**: $\pi_{\text{prior}}(\mathbf{x}) = \exp(-\frac{1}{\beta}J(\mathbf{x}))$ (Gibbs prior) with $\beta > 0$,

then the **MAP estimate** can be obtained by solving

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with $\alpha = \eta^2/\beta$.

- The term $\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$ is called the **data-fidelity** term.
- The term $J(\mathbf{x})$ is called the **regularization** term.
- $\alpha > 0$ is the regularization parameter.

Poisson Measurements in X-ray

The measured transmission l_i in a single detector element follows a Poisson distribution $\mathcal{P}(l_0 \exp(-\mathbf{r}_i^T \mathbf{x}))$:

$$\pi(l_i | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{(l_0 \exp(-\mathbf{r}_i^T \mathbf{x}))^{l_i}}{l_i!} \exp(-l_0 \exp(-\mathbf{r}_i^T \mathbf{x})),$$

where \mathbf{r}_i^T with $i = 1, \dots, m$ denotes the row of the system matrix \mathbf{A} .

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where \mathbf{r}_i^T with $i = 1, \dots, m$ denotes the row of the system matrix \mathbf{A} .

- The **likelihood**: $\pi(\mathbf{l} | \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^m \pi(l_i | \mathbf{x})$.
- The **ML estimate** ($\mathbf{b} = -\log(\mathbf{l}/l_0)$):

$$\arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} -\log(\pi(\mathbf{b} | \mathbf{x})) \iff \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \exp(-\mathbf{b})^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + 1^T \exp(-\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}).$$

- The **MAP estimate**: $\arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \exp(-\mathbf{b})^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + 1^T \exp(-\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}) + \alpha J(\mathbf{x})$.

- **12.1 Quadratic Approximation for Poisson Noise.**

Use the second-order Taylor expansion of

$$D_i(\tau) = \exp(-b_i) \tau + \exp(-\tau), \quad i = 1, \dots, m,$$

to verify that the ML estimation problem can be approximated by the weighted quadratic problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^T \mathbf{W} (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})$$

with $\mathbf{W} = \text{diag}(\exp(-\mathbf{b}))$.