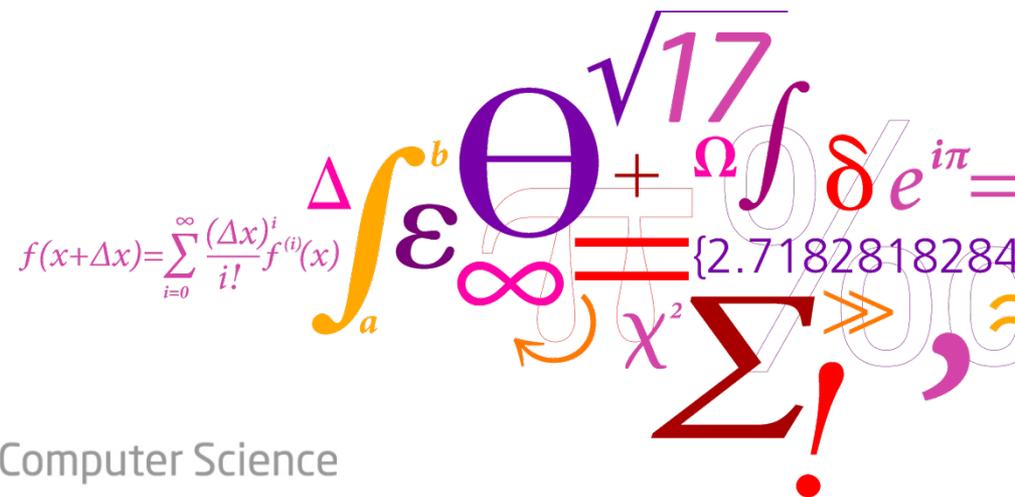


Inverse Problems

New challenges and new methods

Per Christian Hansen

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 Technical University of Denmark



DTU Compute

Department of Applied Mathematics and Computer Science

This Talk

1. A few examples of inverse problems.
2. What is an inverse problem?
3. Why is it difficult to solve? → Illposedness!
4. Regularization = incorporation of priors.
5. Convergence of iterative methods.
6. Prelude to uncertainty quantification.

Per Christian

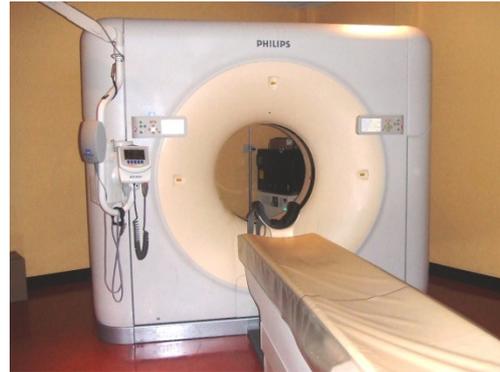
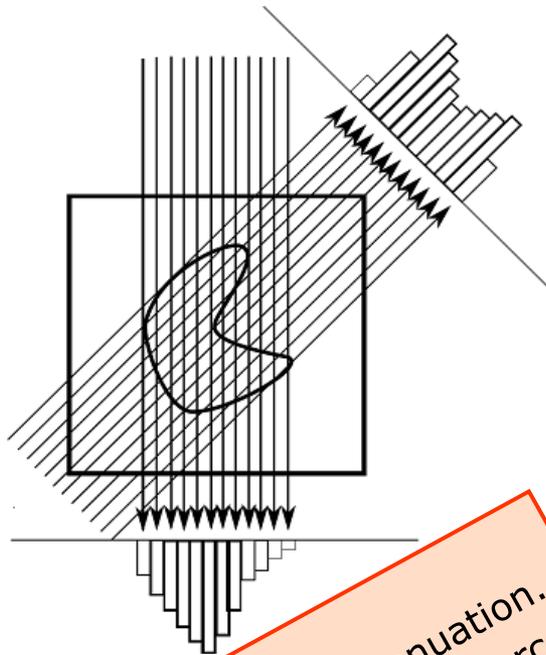
7. Limited-Data CT for Underwater Pipeline Inspection.

Nicolai Andrè Brogaard Riis, PhD student, DTU Compute

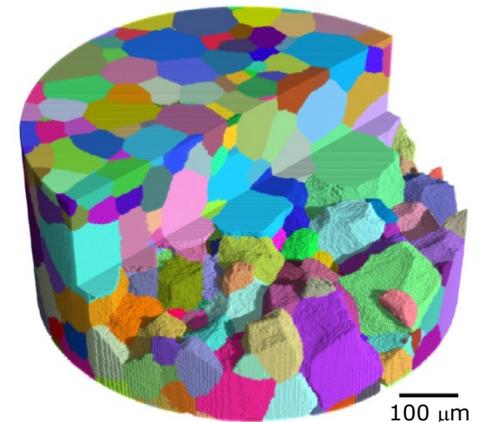
Example: Tomography

Image reconstruction from projections.

Medical imaging



Materials science



- Required**
- Physics of X-ray attenuation.
 - Strength of the X-ray source.
 - Specification of the geometry.

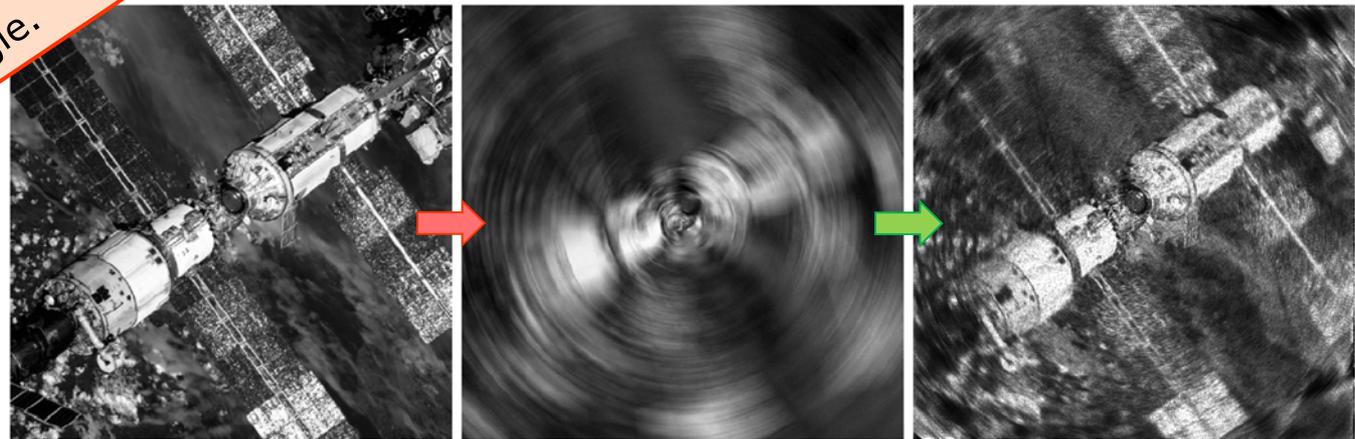
Example: Rotational Image Deblurring

Application: "star camera" used in satellite navigation.



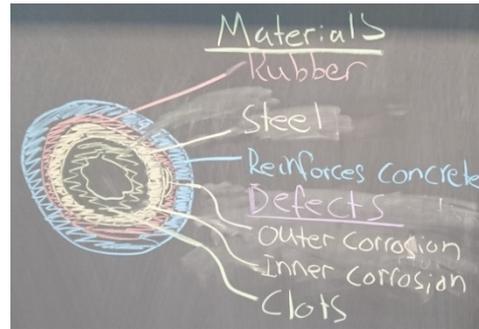
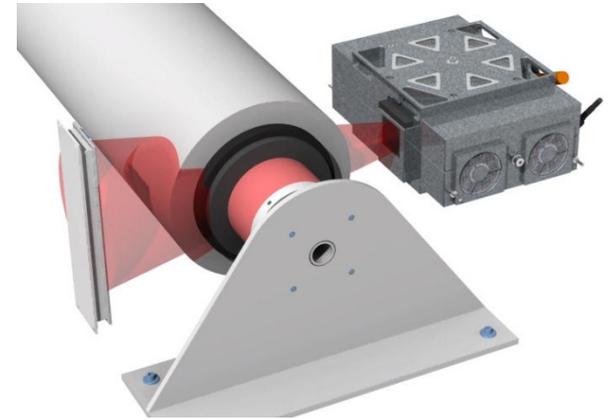
Required

- Center of rotation.
- Rotation angle.



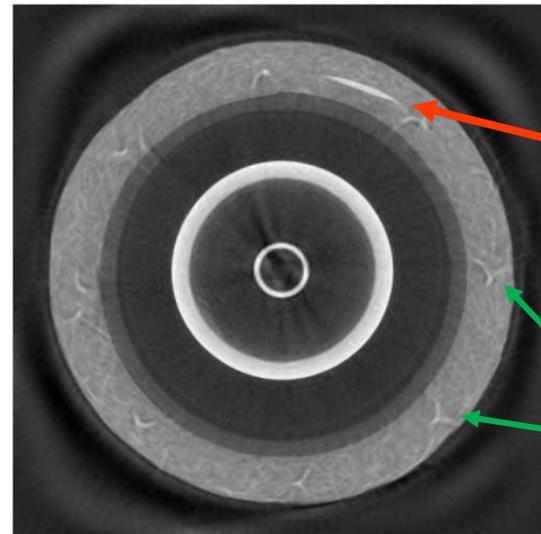
Example: Fault Inspection

Use X-ray scanning to compute cross-sectional images of oil pipes on the seabed. Detect *defects, cracks*, etc. in the pipe.



Required

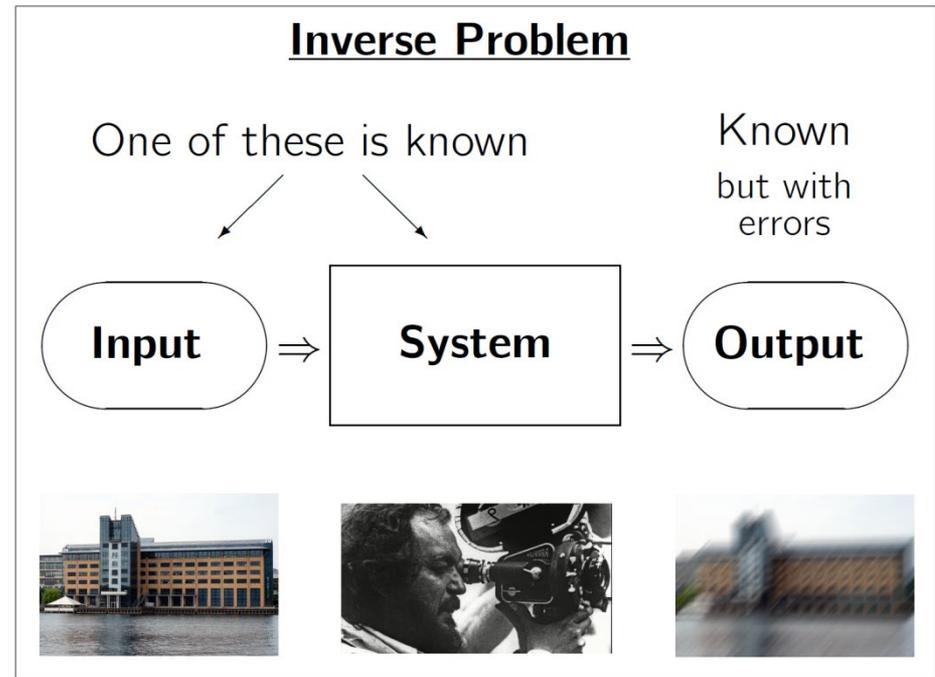
- Strength of the X-ray source.
- Specification of the geometry.
- Structure of the oil pipe.



What is an Inverse Problem ...

Inverse problems

- arise when we use a mathematical model
- to infer about *internal or hidden features*
- from *exterior and/or indirect measurements*.



Why mathematics is important

- A solid foundation for formulation of inverse problems.
- A framework for developing computational algorithms.
- A “language” for expressing the properties of the solutions:
 - existence, uniqueness, stability, reliability, ...

Some Formulations

Mathematical formulations of inverse problems take different forms.

Fredholm integral equation of the first kind:

$$\int_0^1 K(s, t) f(t) dt = g(s) , \quad 0 \leq s \leq 1 .$$

This talk

Calderón problem (PDE with Dirichlet BC):

$$\begin{cases} \nabla \cdot \sigma \nabla u = 0 & u \in \Omega \\ u = f & u \in \partial\Omega \end{cases}$$

Fascinating: very different problems lead to the same formulations.

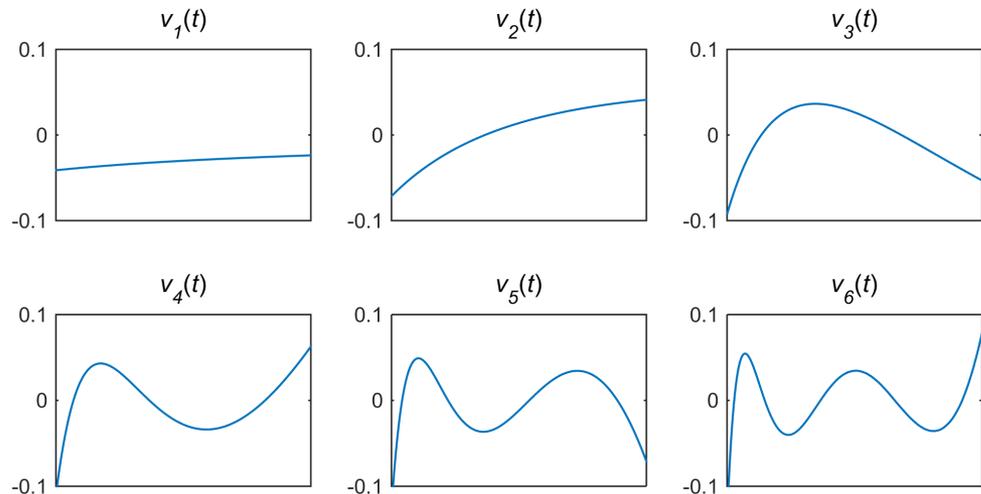
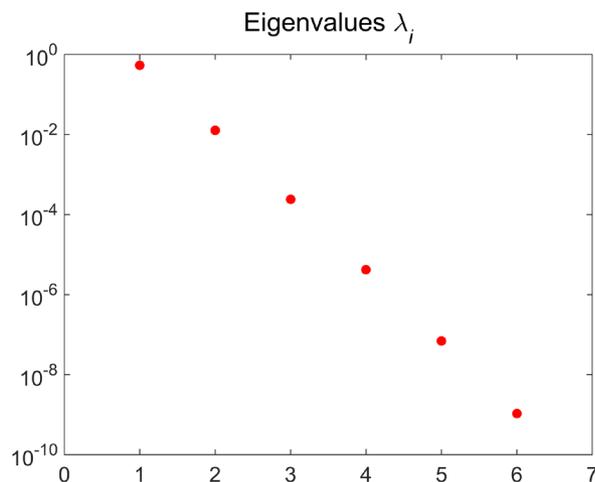
A Simple Example ...

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{s+t+1} f(t) dt = g(s) = 1, \quad 0 \leq s \leq 1.$$

Can you guess a solution?

The kernel $K = (1+s+t)^{-1}$ is symmetric and has a real eigensystem,

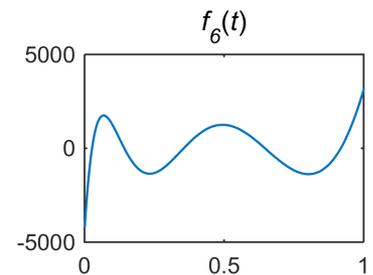
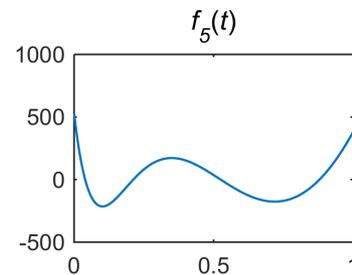
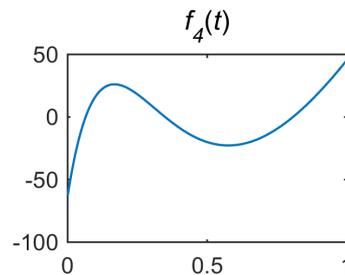
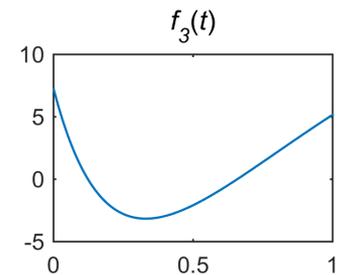
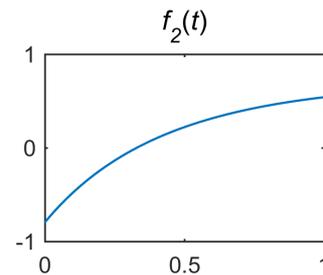
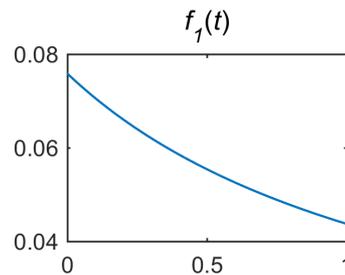
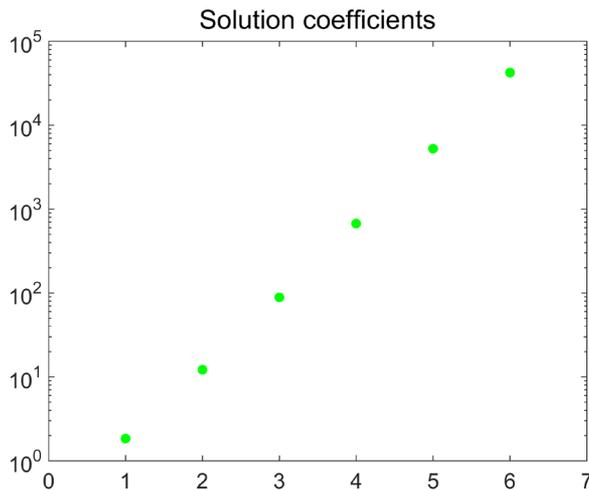
$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{s+t+1} v_i(t) dt = \lambda_i v_i(s), \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$



... With No Solution

Let us compute finite approximations to the solution:

$$f_k(t) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\langle v_i, g \rangle}{\lambda_i} v_i(t), \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$



The amplitude of $f_k(t)$ becomes disturbingly large as k increases, and the sum does not converge as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

Inverse Problems Are Ill Posed

Hadamard's definition of a **well-posed problem** (early 20th century)

1. Existence: the problem must have a solution.
2. Uniqueness: the solution must be unique.
3. Stability: it must depend continuously on data and parameters.

If the problem violates any of these requirements, it is **ill posed**.

Inverse problems are, by nature, always **ill posed**.

And yet, we have a strong desire – and a need – to solve them ...

Hadamard 1 (existence) and 2 (uniqueness)

Case 1

$$Ax = b \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2.1 \\ 3.0 \\ 3.9 \end{pmatrix}$$

There is no x that satisfies this equation, but we can define the **least squares solution** that minimizes the residual norm

$$x_{\text{LS}} \equiv \operatorname{argmin}_x \|Ax - b\|_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1.2 \\ 0.9 \end{pmatrix}$$

Case 2

$$Ax = b \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

There are infinitely many x that satisfy this equation; we can define the unique **minimum-norm solution** that minimizes the solution's norm

$$x_0 \equiv \operatorname{argmin}_x \|x\|_2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad Ax = b \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0.6 \\ 1.2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hadamard 3 (stability)

Unperturbed system:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1.0 & 2.1 & 3.0 \\ 4.0 & 5.0 & 5.9 \\ 7.0 & 8.0 & 9.0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad b = Ax + \begin{pmatrix} 6.1 \\ 14.9 \\ 24.0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Perturbed system:

$$\tilde{b} = b + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0.001 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \tilde{x} = A^{-1}\tilde{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.927 \\ 1.171 \\ 0.904 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The matrix A is ill conditioned, $\text{cond}(A) = 4249$, and therefore the solution is very sensitive to perturbations of b and A :

$$\frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x\|} \leq \text{cond}(A) \left(\frac{\|\Delta b\|}{\|b\|} + \frac{\|\Delta A\|}{\|A\|} \right).$$

Eigenvalue Analysis for Symmetric Kernel

Recall that we can write the solution as

$$f(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\langle v_i, g \rangle}{\lambda_i} v_i(t) , \quad \langle v_i, g \rangle = \int_0^1 v_i(s) g(s) ds .$$

Picard condition for a square integrable solution:

$$\|f\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\langle v_i, g \rangle}{\lambda_i} \right)^2 < \infty .$$

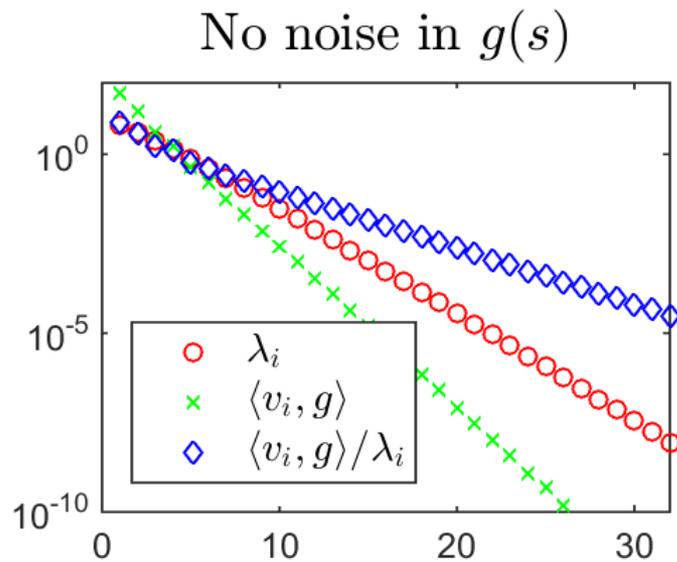
The numerator must decay *sufficiently faster* than the denominator.

Specifically, the coefficients $\langle v_i, g \rangle$ must decay faster than $\lambda_i i^{-1/2}$.

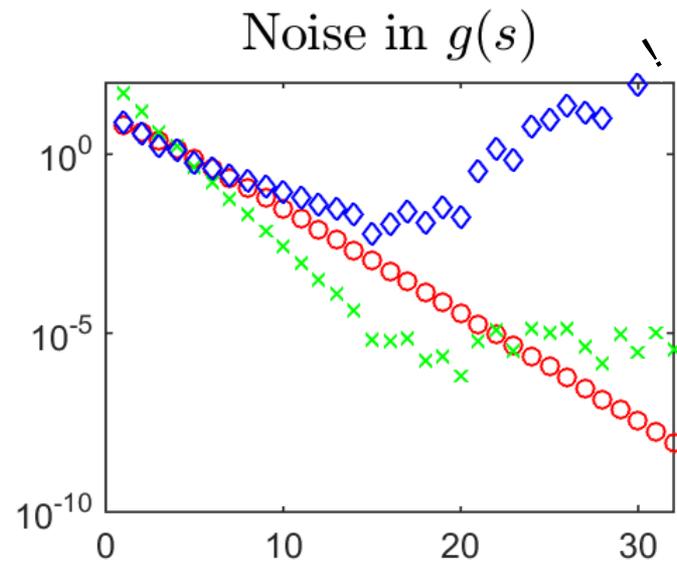
Eigenvalue Analysis for Symmetric Kernel

Recall: the coefficients $\langle v_i, g \rangle$ must decay faster than $\lambda_i i^{-1/2}$.

Test problem – **gravity** from Regularization Tools (Hansen, 2007):



With no noise in the data,
the Picard condition is satisfied.



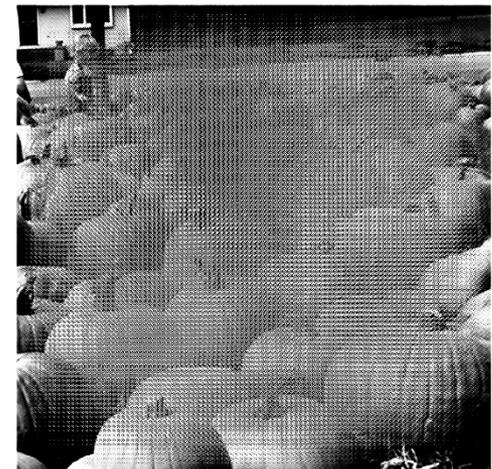
When noise is present, the
Picard condition is **not** satisfied.
The solution coefficients **diverge**.

! 1 and beyond

Dealing with the Instability → Regularization

The ill conditioning of the problem makes it impossible to compute a “naive” solution to the inverse problem:

$$K f = g \quad \rightarrow \quad \cancel{f_{\text{naive}} = K^{-1} g}$$



→ Incorporate prior information about the solution via **regularization**:

$$\min_f \{ \|K f - g\|_2^2 + \alpha R(f) \} , \quad R(f) = \text{regularizer}$$

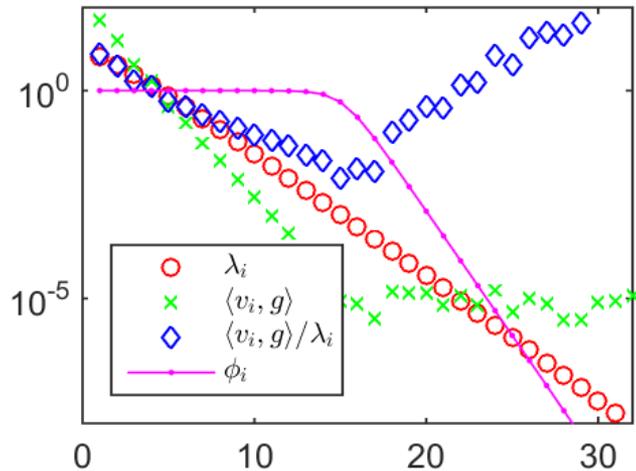
Eigenvalue Analysis of Tikhonov Regularizer

The important special case of Tikhonov regularization

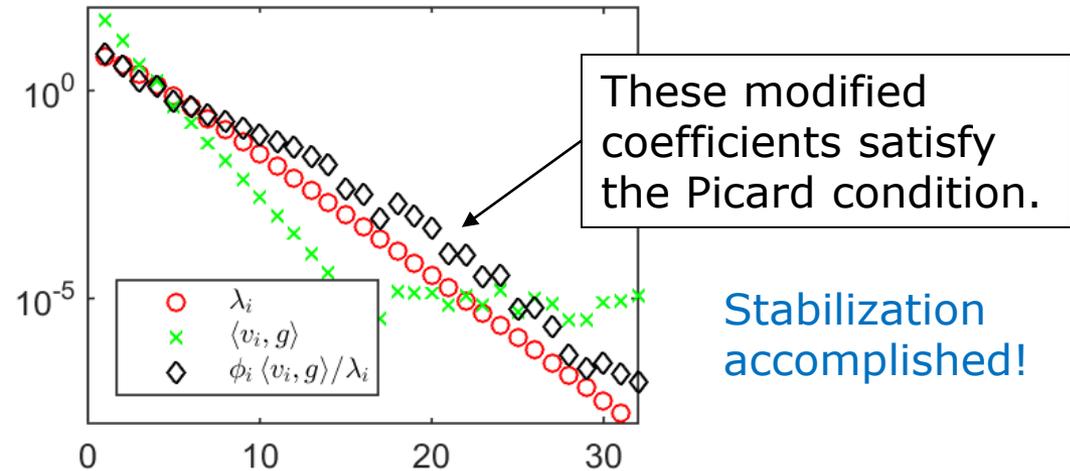
$$R(f) = \|f\|_2^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^2}{\lambda^2 + \alpha} \frac{\langle v_i, g \rangle}{\lambda_i} v_i(t) .$$

Here $\phi_i = \frac{\lambda^2}{\lambda^2 + \alpha}$ are the *filter factors*.

Noise in $g(s)$



Tikhonov



Case: Total Variation (TV)

Prior: image consists of regions with constant intensity and sharp edges.
How to say this *in mathematical terms*?

Total variation regularization term $R(f) = \int_{\Omega} \|\nabla f\|_2 d\Omega \rightarrow$

$$R(x) = \sum_{\text{pixels}} \|D_i x\|_2, \quad D_i x = \text{gradient}$$



Case: Directional TV (DTV)



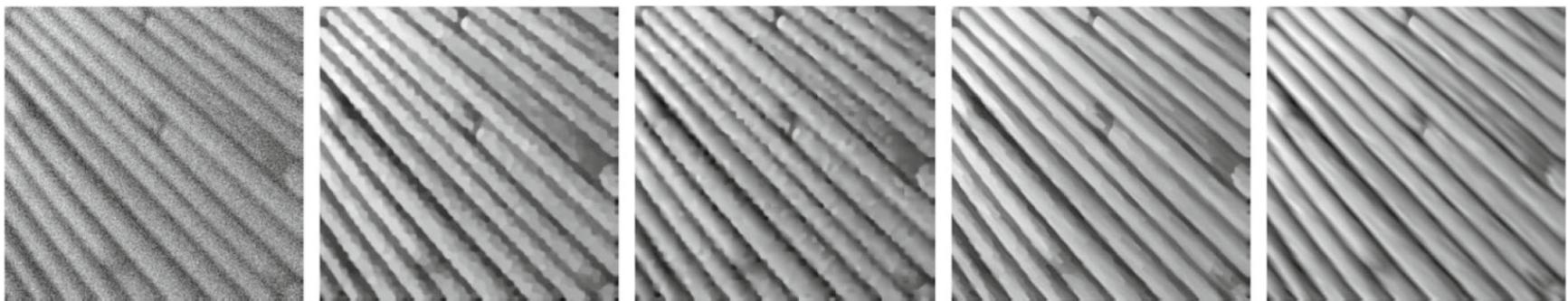
Kongskov, Dong, Knudsen, *Directional total generalized variation regularization*, 2019.

Prior: the edges in the image have a dominating direction θ .
How to say that in mathematical terms?

Directional TV regularization term:

$$R(f) = \int_{\Omega} \left\| \begin{pmatrix} D_{\theta} f \\ \gamma D_{\theta^{\perp}} f \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2 d\Omega ,$$

where D_{θ} is the directional derivative.



Blurred and noisy

TV and similar methods

Directional TV

Case: Regularization with Sparsity Prior

TV = a "sparsity prior" that produces a solution with a *sparse gradient*.

We can also require that the *solution itself is sparse*, i.e., the image has many nonzero pixels. How to say this in mathematical terms?

Use the 1-norm to enforce sparsity:

$$R(x) = \|x\|_1 = \sum_i |x_i| .$$

Candès, Donoho, Romberg, Tao.

This is well known from **compressed sensing** where it is successfully used to reconstruct a sparse signal x from limited data.

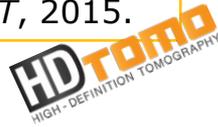
THEOREM: we can reconstruct a sparse $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with at most p nonzeros from a data vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ with $b = Ax$ if A is random and $m \approx 2p$.

In our inverse problems, A is certainly not random – it is a discretization of the forward operator.

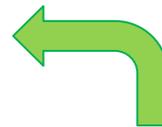
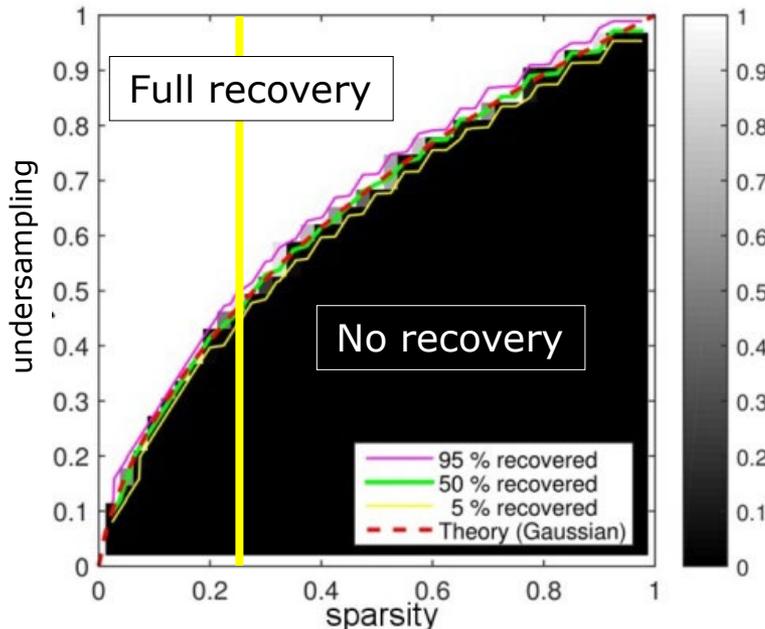
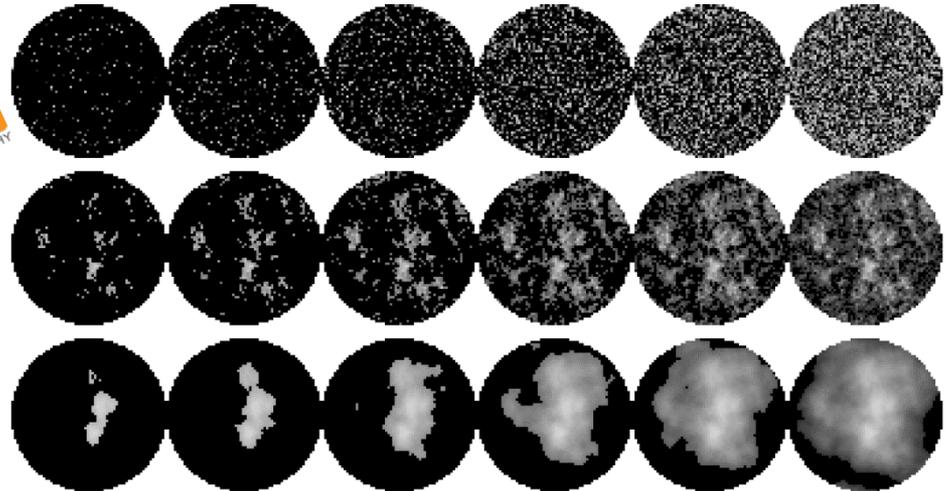
Surprisingly, we can still use a 1-norm regularization term $R(x) = \|x\|_1$.

Case: Sparse CT Reconstruction

Jørgensen, Sidky, Hansen, Pan, *Empirical Average-Case Relation Between Under-sampling and Sparsity in X-Ray CT*, 2015.



Artificial sparse test images.  Left to right: 5%, 10%, 20%, 40%, 60%, 80% nonzeros.



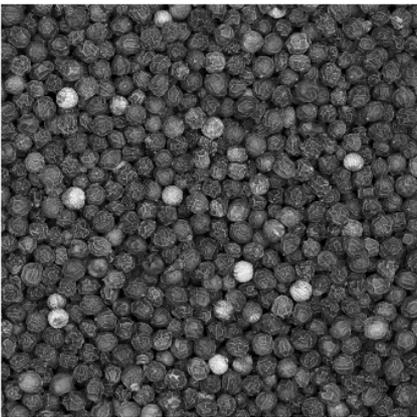
Phase diagram: the *recovery fraction* of reconstructed images at a given *sparsity* abruptly changes from 0 to 1, once a critical number of measurements is reached. Agrees with the theoretical phase transition for random matrices (Donoho, Tanner 2009).

Case: Training Images as Regularizer

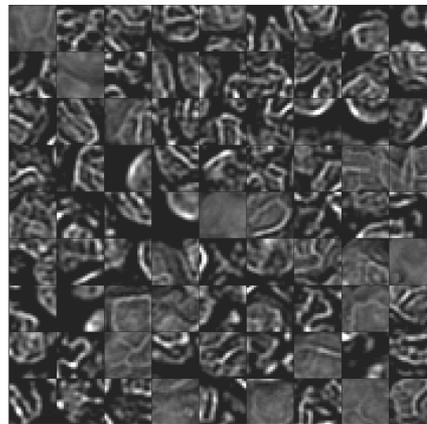
Soltani, Kilmer, Hansen, *A tensor-based dictionary learning approach to tomographic image reconstruction*, 2016.

Soltani, Andersen, Hansen, *Tomographic image reconstruction using training images*, 2017.

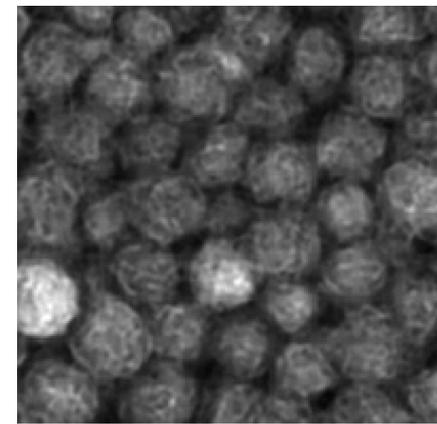
Training images
are *patches* from
high-res image.



Dictionary patches
learned via nonneg.
matrix factorization.



Reconstruction
computed from highly
underdet. problem.



Dictionary



Sparsity prior on dictionary elements

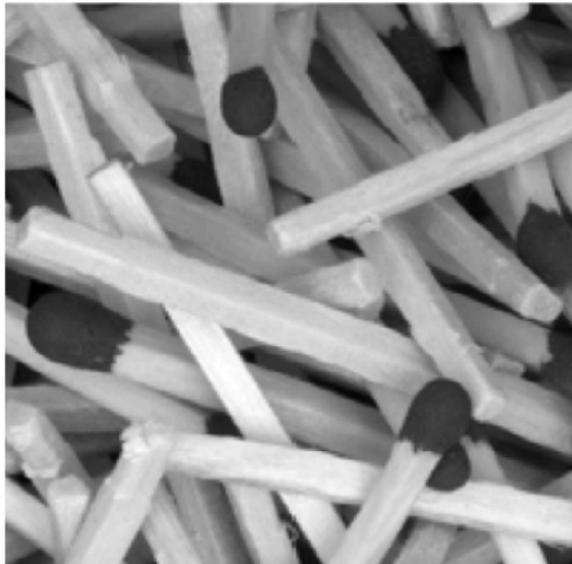


$$\min_z \|A W z - b\|_2^2 + \alpha \|z\|_1, \quad x = W z .$$

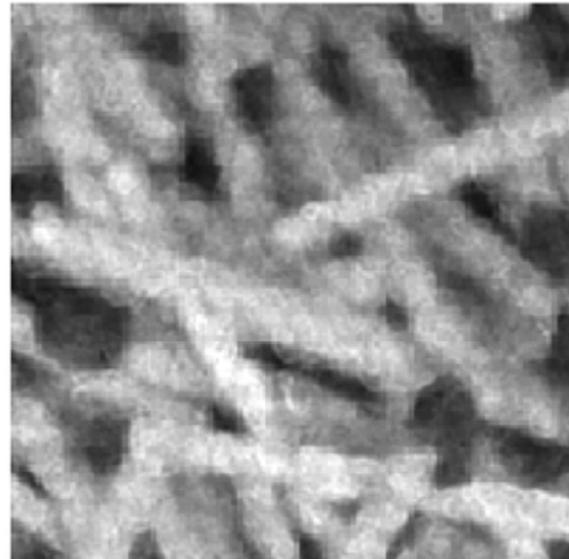
Case: When the Training Images are Wrong

Soltani, Andersen, Hansen, *Tomographic image reconstruction using training images*, 2017.

HD TOMO
HIGH-DEFINITION TOMOGRAPHY



Exact image

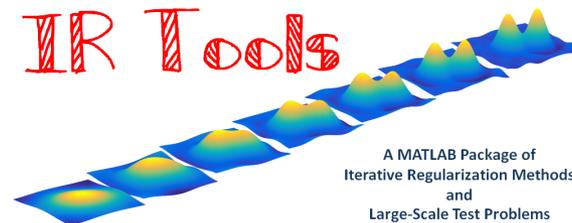
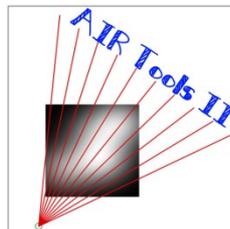


Peppermatches?

The “best” reconstruction based on a **wrong** dictionary created from the peppers training image.

Algorithm Development – Iterative Methods

Huge computational problems.
How to solve them efficiently?
→ Iterative methods!



Gradient (steepest descent) method for computing CT solutions:

$$x^k \leftarrow x^{k-1} + \omega B(b - Ax^{k-1}) .$$

Here A = Radon transform = forward projector, and B = backprojector.

By definition, $B = A^T$ (the transpose).

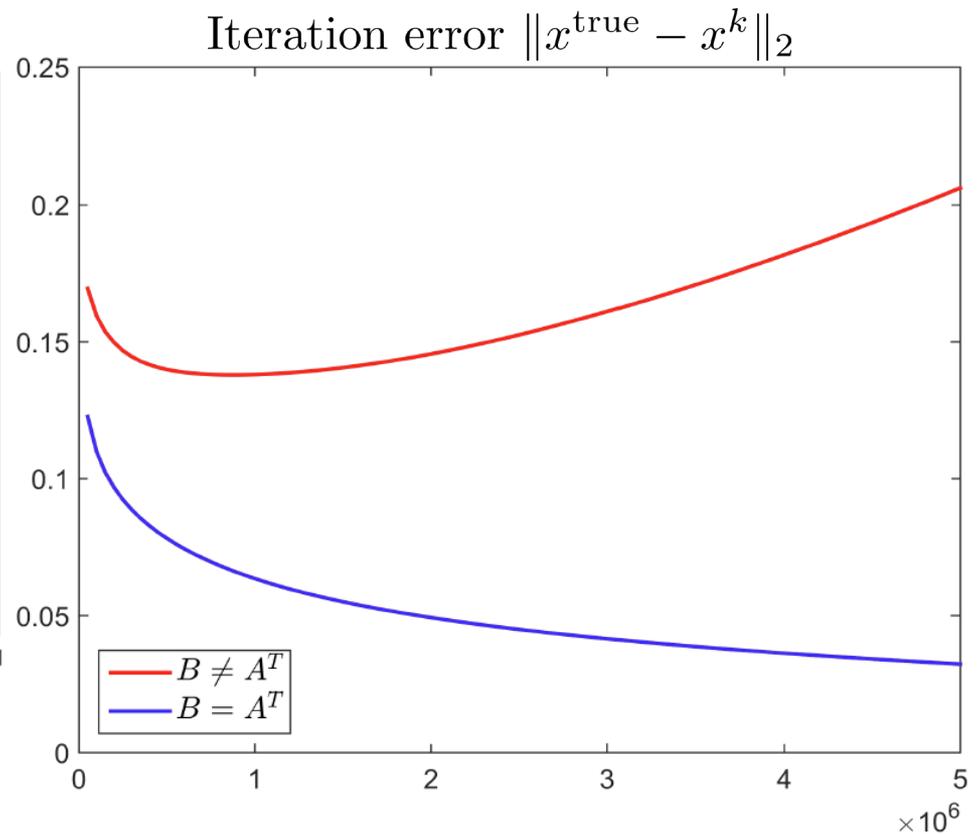
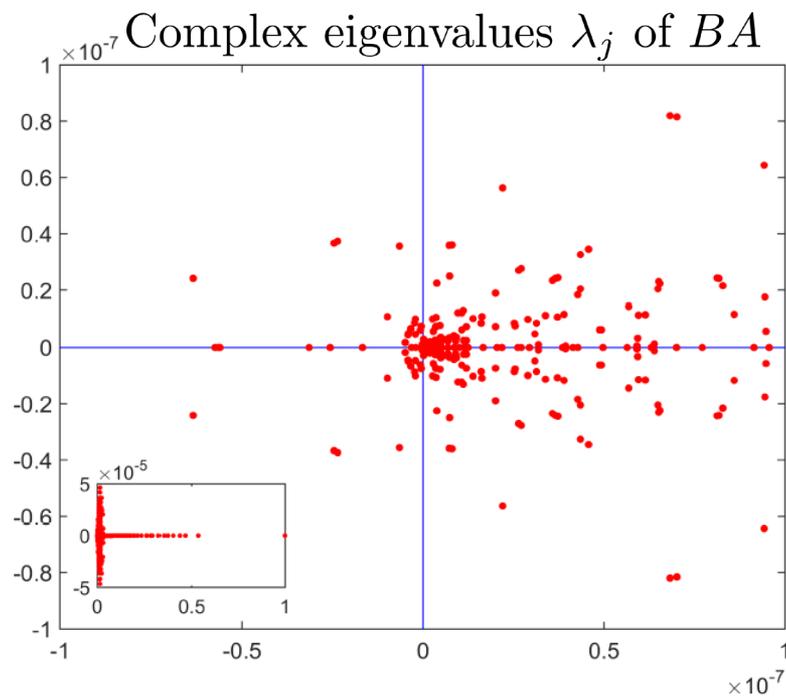
So who in their right mind would write software where $B \neq \{A\}$?

All good HPC-programmers! Efficient use of GPUs etc.

Need to study the implications of this fact.

Nonconvergence!

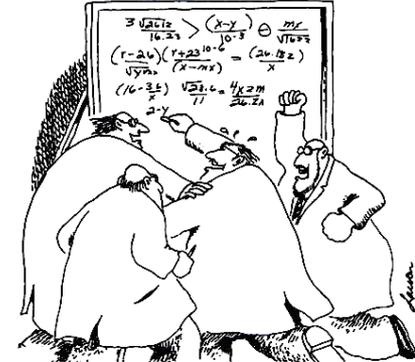
Parallel-beam CT, unmatched pair from *ASTRA*, 64×64 Shepp-Logan phantom, 90 projection angles, 60 detector pixels, $\min \operatorname{Re} \lambda_j = -6.4 \cdot 10^{-8}$.



Nonconvergence due to eigenvalues of BA with negative real part ☹

The Fix

1. Ask the software developers to change their implementation of B and/or A ?
→ Significant loss of comput. efficiency.
2. Use mathematics to *fix* the nonconvergence.



We define the **shifted** version of the (unprojected) iterative algorithm:

$$x^{k+1} = (1 - \alpha\omega) x^k + \omega B (b - A x^k), \quad \alpha > 0$$

with just one extra factor $(1 - \alpha\omega)$; simple to implement.

Convergence to a fixed point if

$$0 < \omega < 2 \frac{\operatorname{Re} \lambda_j + \alpha}{|\lambda_j|^2 + \alpha(\alpha + 2 \operatorname{Re} \lambda_j)} \quad \text{and}$$

$\operatorname{Re} \lambda_j + \alpha > 0$.

Choose the shift α
just large enough!

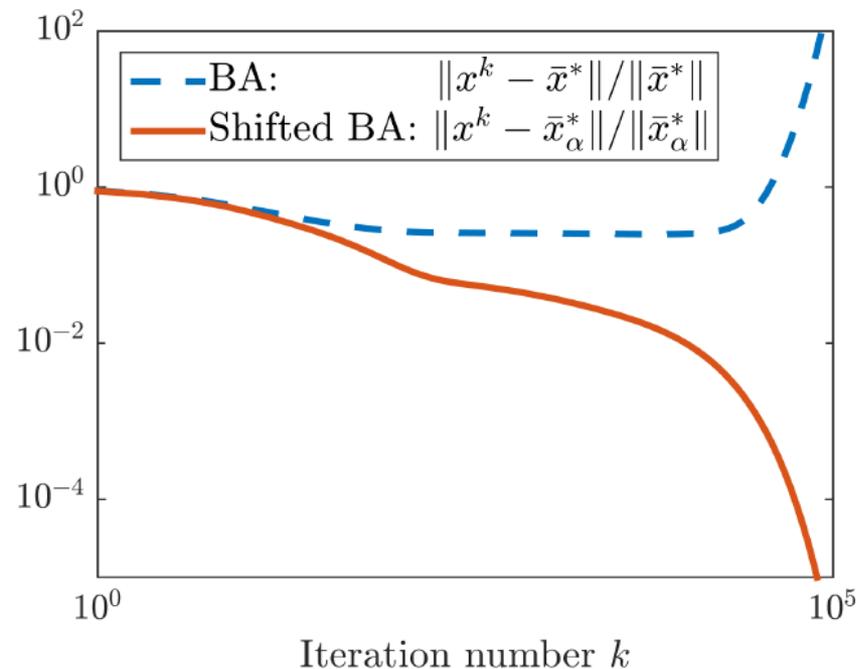
Nonconvergente \rightarrow Convergence

Parallel-beam CT, 90 projections in the range 0° – 180° , 80 detector pixels; 128×128 Shepp-Logan phantom; $m = 7\,200$ and $n = 16\,384$.

Both A and B are generated with the GPU-version of the ASTRA toolbox.

$$\rho(BA) = 1.76 \cdot 10^4$$

$$\alpha = 1.85$$



The BA Iteration diverges from $\bar{x}^* = (BA)^{-1}Bb$.

The Shifted BA Iteration converges to fixed point $\bar{x}_\alpha^* = (BA + \alpha I)^{-1}Bb$.

Beyond Sharp Reconstructions → UQ

Classical method.

Figure credit to E. Sidky

960-view FDK

96-view TV

TV regularization needs only 10% of full X-ray dose.

But how **reliable** are the spots?

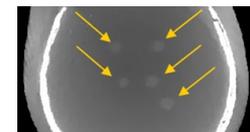
All kinds of errors have influence on the solution:

$$x = \underset{\text{algorithm-error}}{\text{argmin}} \left\{ \left\| \underset{\text{model-error}}{\mathcal{A}} x - \underset{\text{data-error}}{b} \right\| + \underset{\text{regularization-error}}{\text{regularization}}(x) \right\}$$

UQ – **uncertainty quantification** – is the end-to-end study of the impact of all forms of error and uncertainty in the data and models.

Case. UQ in X-ray medical imaging:

➤ How reliable are the *locations* and *contrasts* of the spots?

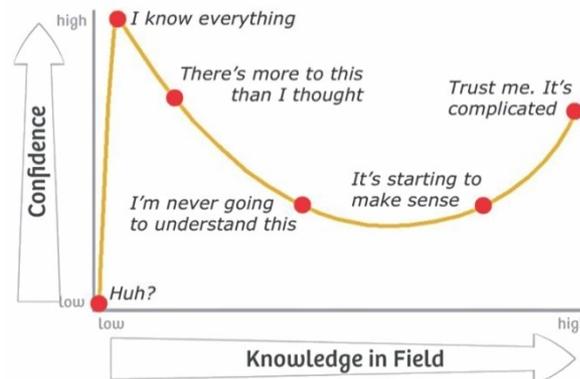


Computational Uncertainty Quantification for Inverse Problems

- Develop the mathematical, statistical and computational framework.
- Create a modeling framework and a computational platform for non-experts.

Vision

Computational UQ becomes an essential part of solving inverse problems in science and engineering.



UQ: Gaussian Data Errors and Gaussian Prior

Model: $b = A \bar{x} + e$ with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ fixed and $e = \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I)$.

The pdf for b , given x and σ (known as the *likelihood*):

$$p(b|x, \sigma) = \left(\frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \right)^{m/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 \right).$$

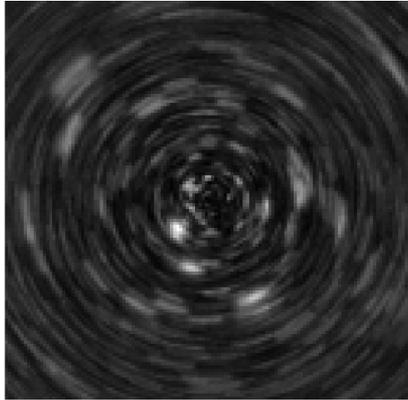
The unknown x is a random vector. Assume a Gaussian prior $x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \delta^{-1}I)$ this yields the prior

$$p(x|\delta) = \left(\frac{\delta}{2\pi} \right)^{n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{\delta}{2} \|x\|_2^2 \right).$$

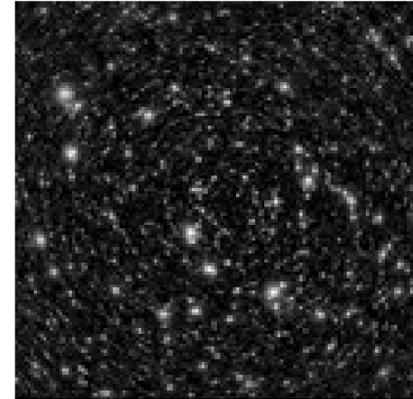
Bayes rule/law/theorem defines the *posterior* for x :

$$\begin{aligned} p(x|b, \sigma, \delta) &= \frac{p(b|x, \sigma) p(x|\delta)}{p(b|\sigma, \delta)} \propto p(b|x, \sigma) p(x|\delta) \\ &\propto \text{const} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 \right) \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\delta}{2} \|x\|_2^2 \right) \\ &\propto \exp\left(-\|Ax - b\|_2^2 - \alpha \|x\|_2^2 \right), \quad \alpha = \delta \sigma^2. \end{aligned}$$

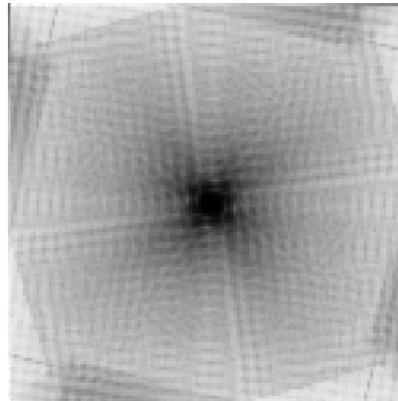
UQ in Image Deblurring



Measured blurred image.



A solution (MAP estimator).

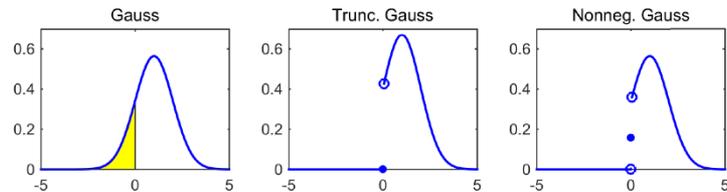


UQ shows uncertainty in each pixel; white denotes high uncertainty.

Case: UQ with Non-Negative Prior

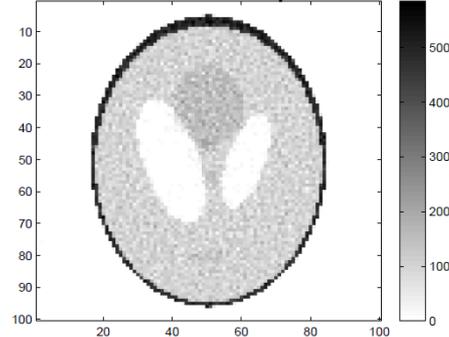
If the **prior** or **likelihood** is non-Gaussian, we must **sample** the **posterior**: we generate many random instances of the regularized solution with the specified likelihood and prior.

Bardsley, Hansen, *MCMC Algorithms for Non-negativity Constrained Inverse Problems*, 2019.

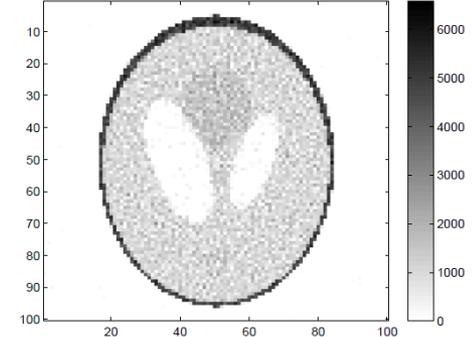


We have an analytical expression for the **prior**, but no analytical expression for the **posterior**.

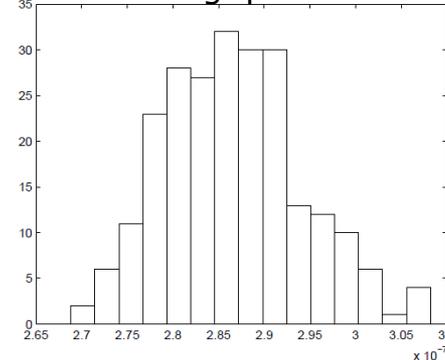
Mean of samples



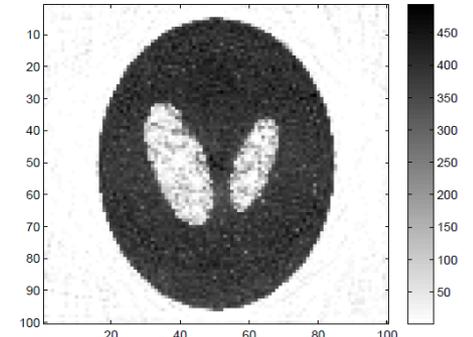
MAP estimate



Hist. of reg. parameters



Standard deviation

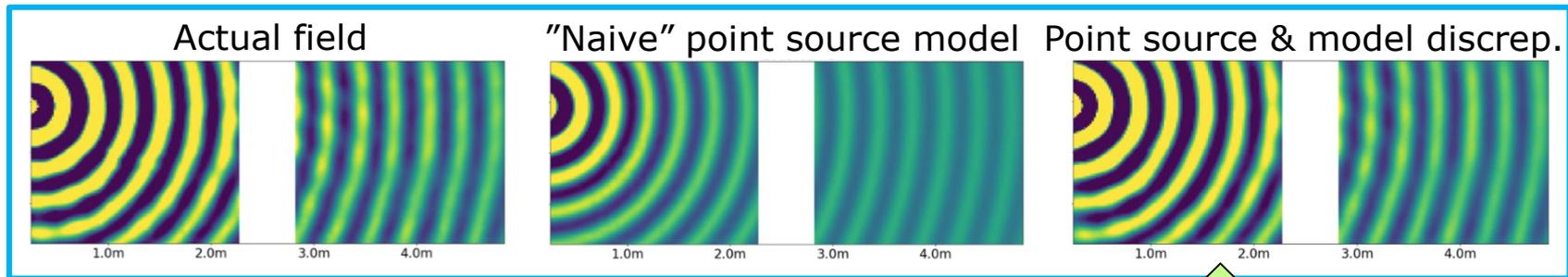


Positron Emission Tomography.
Solutions sampled by a new Poisson Hierarchical Gibbs Sampler.

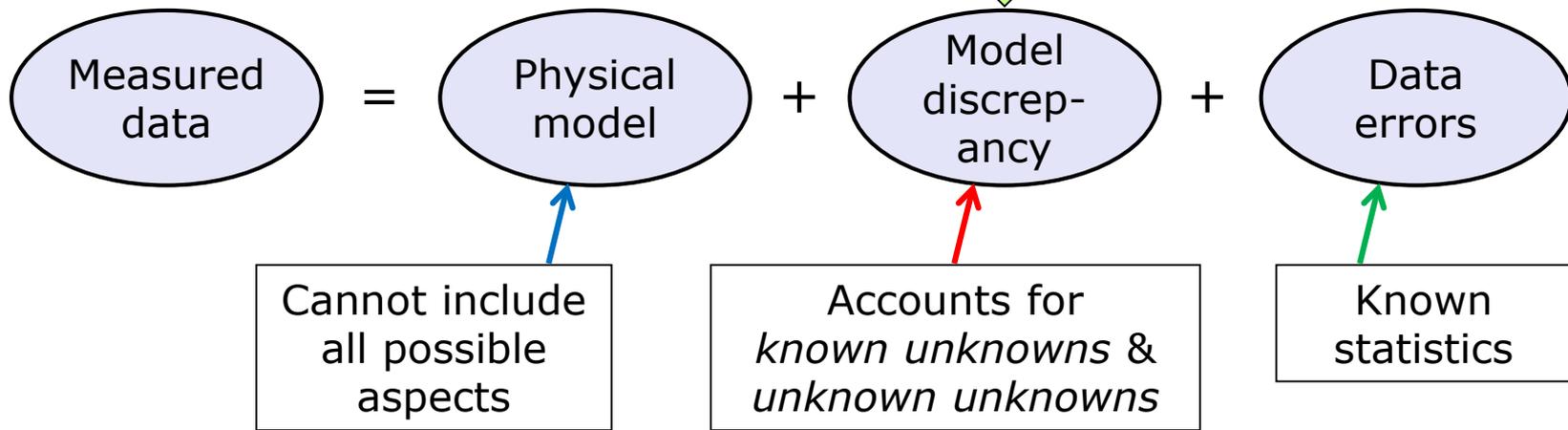
Case: UQ for Model Discrepancies

CUQI

Dong, Riis, Hansen, *Modeling of sound fields*, joint with DTU Elektro, 2019.

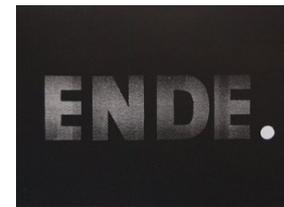


Described by a Gaussian process



And The Future ...

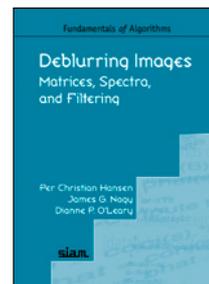
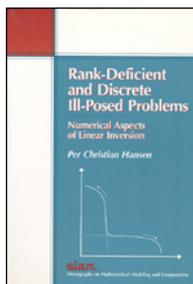
- As more people solve inverse problems, more *training* is necessary.
- *New modalities* pose new questions about existence and stability
→ coupled-physics in impedance tomography, neutron imaging, ...
- Many priors today are not covered by our “standard” techniques
→ need more *flexible* regularization methods.
- Dealing with uncertainties. Natural to demand UQ for one’s problem, but
 - how to obtain the necessary statistical *insight*,
 - how to execute the sampling methods *robust* and *efficiently*, and
 - how to make UQ *available to non-experts*?



Appendix: About Me ...



- Numerical analysis, inverse problems, regularization algorithms, matrix computations, image deblurring, signal processing, Matlab software, ...
- Head of the Villum Investigator project
Computational Uncertainty Quantification for Inverse Problems. → **CUQI**
- Author of several Matlab software packages.
- Author of four books.



HD-Tomo: High-Definition Tomography

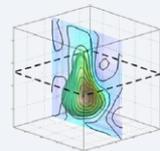
The following examples are from the project **HD-Tomo**, which was funded by an ERC Advanced Research Grant, 2012–17.



Objective: Optimal Use Prior Information

Tomographic imaging allows us to see inside objects. Doctors look for cancer, physicists study microscopic details of materials, security personnel inspect luggage, engineers identify defects in pipes, concrete, etc.

To achieve **high-definition tomography**, sharp images with reliable details, we must use *prior information* = *accumulated knowledge about the object*. **This project: how to do this in an optimal way.**



Outcome: Insight, Framework and Algorithms

We developed *new theory* that provides insight and understanding of the challenges and possibilities of using advanced priors. This insight allowed us to develop a *framework for precisely formulated tomographic algorithms* that produce *well-defined results*. We laid the groundwork for the next generation of algorithms that will further optimize the use of prior information. The project produced **47** journal papers, **6** proceeding papers, **7** software packages, **25** bachelor/master projects and **3** workshops.