

Inverse Problems

Do the Impossible - Solve the Unsolvable

Per Christian Hansen

Professor, Villum Investigator Section for Scientific Computing



What it's like to do research

Heian Shrine, Kyoto

DTU Compute

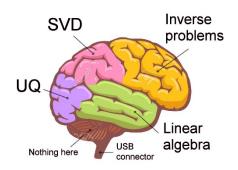
Department of Applied Mathematics and Computer Science

About Me ...

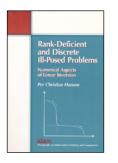


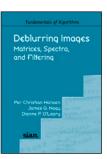






- Numerical analysis & inverse problems regularization algorithms, matrix computations, image deblurring, signal processing, Matlab software, ...
- Head of the Villum Investigator project Computational Uncertainty Quantification for Inverse Problems.
- Author of several Matlab software packages.
- Author of four books (one more underway).









Computed Tomography Scientific Computing & Just **Enough Theory**

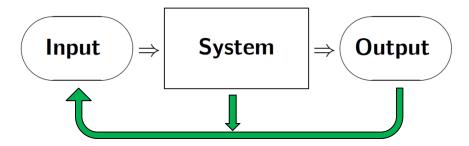




In a forward problem, we use a mathematical model to compute the output from a "system" given the input.



In an inverse problem we estimate a quantity that is not directly observable, using indirect measurements and the forward model.



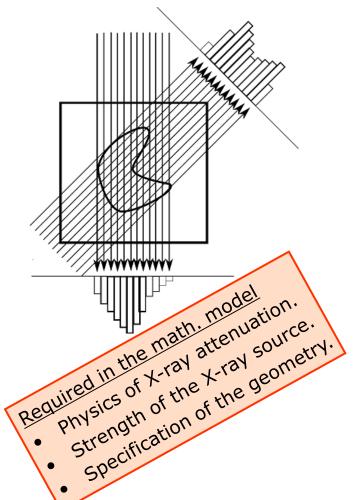
Some examples on the next pages.

Example: Tomography



Image reconstruction from projections.

Medical imaging

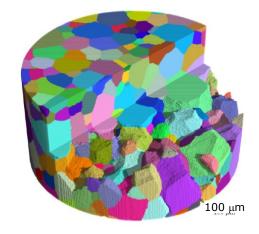






Materials science









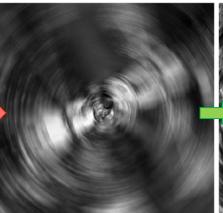
Application: "star camera" used in satellite navigation.





equired in the math. It equired in the math. If Rotation angle.







Inverse Problem and Mathematics



Inverse problems

- ullet arise when we use a <u>mathematical model</u> ${\cal K}$
- to infer about internal or hidden features f
- from external and/or indirect measurements g.

$$\mathcal{K}f = g$$

Why mathematics is important

- · A solid foundation for formulation of inverse problems.
- A framework for developing computational algorithms.
- A "language" for defining and 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:



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

Calderón problem (PDE with Dirichlet BC):

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

Fascinating: very different applications of inverse problems lead to the same formulations.

A Few Simple Examples



$$\int K(s,t) f(t) dt = \frac{1}{6} (s^3 - s) , \qquad K(s,t) = \begin{cases} s(t-1), & s < t \\ t(s-1), & s \ge t \end{cases}$$

The solution is the second derivative, so f(t) = t.

$$\int_0^{2\pi} K(s-t) f(t) dt = g(s) , \qquad f, g, K \text{ are } 2\pi\text{-periodic.}$$

This is deconvolution; the solution is formally given by

$$f(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\mathcal{F}(g) / \mathcal{F}(k))$$
, $\mathcal{F} = \text{Fourier transform.}$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta - s) f(x, y) dx dy = g(s, \theta)$$
$$s \in [0, 1], \quad \theta \in [0, 2\pi).$$

This is the Radon transform underlying X-ray CT.





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

A symmetric kernel K(s,t) = K(t,s) has a real eigensystem,

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

Then we can write the solution as

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

This is very useful for analysis of inverse problems (but no so much for numerical computations).

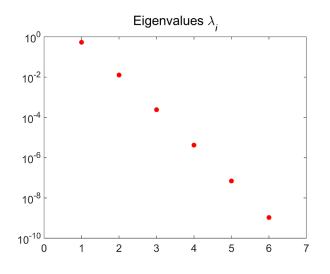
A Tricky Example ...

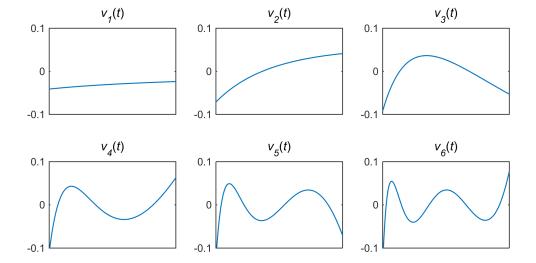


$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{s+t+1} f(t) dt = g(s) = 1 , \qquad 0 \le s \le 1 .$$

Can you guess a solution?

Eigenvalues and eigenfunctions:





With No Solution



Let us compute finite approximations to the solution:

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

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

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. Uniquness: 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 ...





Case 1

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

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

$$x_{LS} \equiv \operatorname{argmin}_{x} ||Ax - b||_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.2\\0.9 \end{pmatrix}$$

Case 2

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

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

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





Unperturbed system:

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

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, $\operatorname{cond}(A) = 4249$, and therefore the solution is very sensitive to perturbations of b and A:

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





Recall that we can write the solution as

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

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 enumerator must decay sufficiently faster than the denomiator.

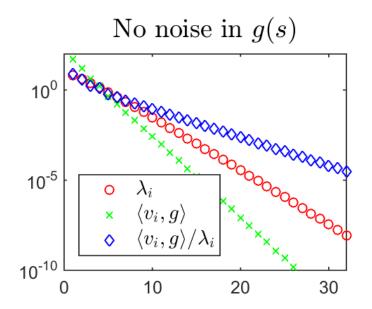
Specifically, the coefficients $\langle v_i, g \rangle$ must decay faster than $\lambda_i i^{-1/2}$.



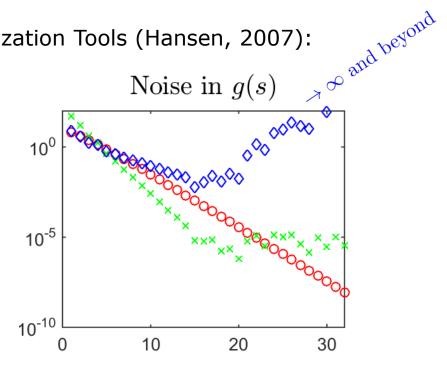


Recall: the coefficients $\langle v_i, g \rangle$ must decay faster than $\lambda_i i^{-1/2}$.

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







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

Dealing with the Instability → **Regularization**



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

$$Kf = g \qquad \rightarrow \qquad f_{\text{naive}} = K^{-1}g$$







→ Incorporate <u>prior information</u> about the solution via **regularization**:

$$\min_{f} \{ \|Kf - g\|_{2}^{2} + \alpha R(f) \}$$
, $R(f) = \text{regularizer}$

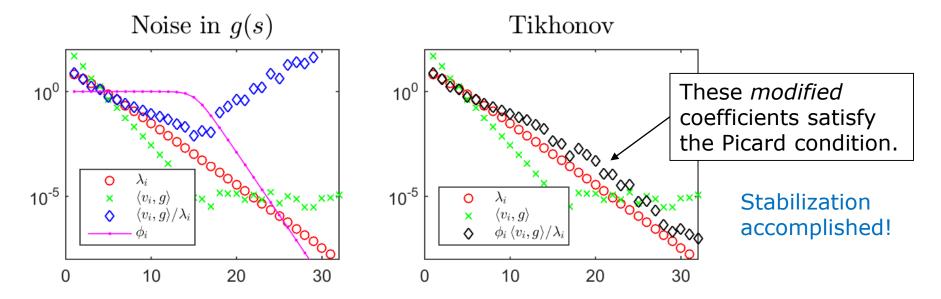




The important special case of Tikhonov regularization

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

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



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

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



P. C. Hansen - Inverse Problems

Case: Directional TV (DTV)



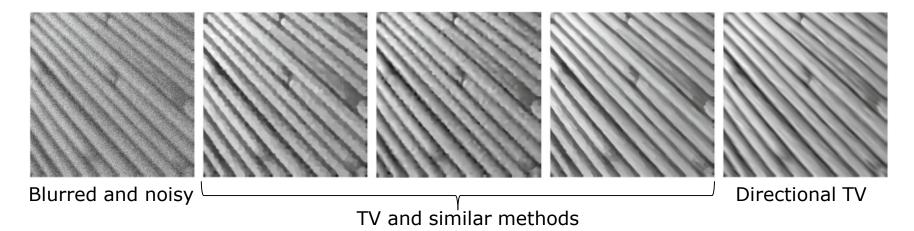
Kongskov, Dong, Knudsen, Directional total generalized variation regularization, 2019.

Prior: the edges in the mage 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.



P. C. Hansen – Inverse Problems

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:

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 nonzeroes 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.

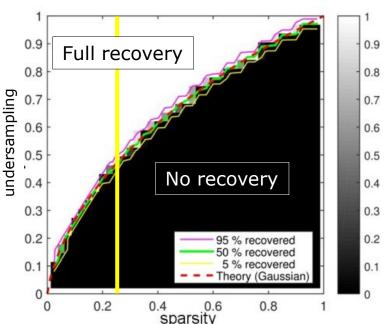
Surprisingly, we can still use a 1-norm regularization term $R(x) = ||x||_1$.

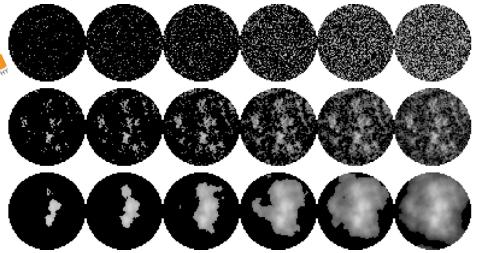




Jørgensen, Sidky, H, Pan, *Empirical* Average-Case Relation Between Undersampling and Sparsity in X-Ray CT, 2015.

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





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).

22/31 **P. C. Hansen – Inverse Problems** Meet DTU, Dec. 2019

Case: Training Images as Regularizer

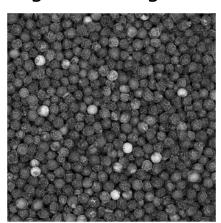


Soltani, Kilmer, H, A tensor-based dictionary learning approach to tomographic image reconstruction, 2016.

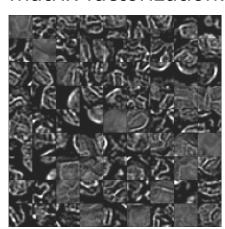
Soltani, Andersen, H, Tomographic image reconstruction using training images, 2017.



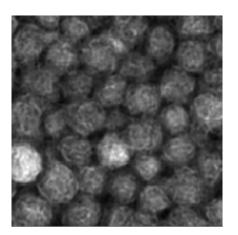
<u>Training images</u> are *patches* from high-res image.



<u>Dictionary patches</u> *learned* via nonneg. matrix factorization.



Reconstruction computed from highly underdet. problem.



Dictionary

 $\min_{z} ||AWz - b||_{2}^{2} + \alpha ||z||_{1}, \qquad x = Wz.$

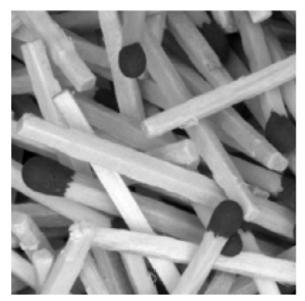
Sparsity prior on dictionary elements



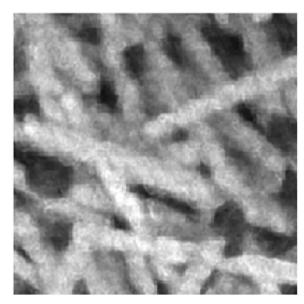


Soltani, Andersen, H, Tomographic image reconstruction using training images, 2017.





Exact image



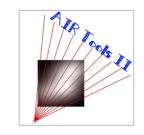
The "best" reconstruction based on a wrong dictionary created from the peppers training image.

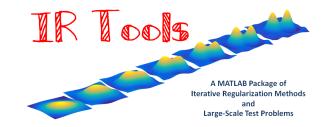
Peppermatches?





Large-scale problems A x = b. How to solve them efficiently? → Iterative methods!





Gradient (steepest descent) method for computing CT solutions:

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

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

By definition, $B = A^T$ and x^k converges to the least squares solution.

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

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

Need to study the implications of this fact.

Convergence Explained



Convergence of an iterative method means that the sequence of iteration vectors

$$x^0 \to x^1 \to x^2 \to x^3 \to \cdots$$

approaches a limit vector as $k \to \infty$.

For the steepest descent method (with $B = A^T$) we have

$$x^k \to x_{LS}$$
 for $k \to \infty$,

where x_{LS} is the least squares solution.

The *conditions* for convergence are:

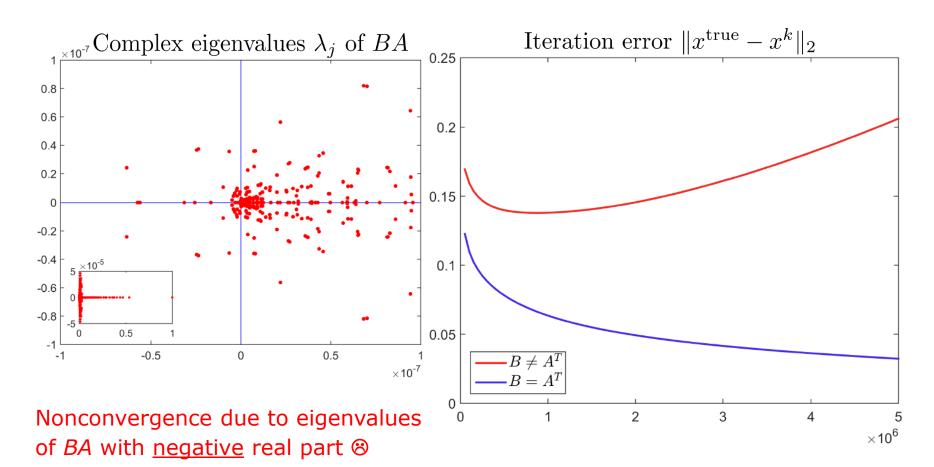
$$0 < \omega < 2 \frac{\operatorname{Re} \lambda_j}{|\lambda_j|^2}$$
 and $\operatorname{Re} \lambda_j > 0$,

where λ_i are the eigenvalues of BA.

Nonconvergence!

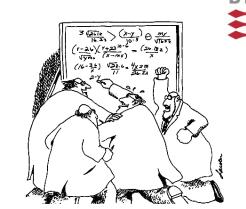


Parallel-beam CT, unmatched pair from ASTRA, 64×64 Shepp-Logan phantom, 90 projection angles, 60 detector pixels, min Re $\lambda_i = -6.4 \cdot 10^{-8}$.



The Fix

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



We define the **shifted** version of the iterative algorithm:

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

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

Condition for convergence:

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

Dong, H, Hochstenbach, Riis; SISC, 2019.

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

Choose the shift σ just large enough!

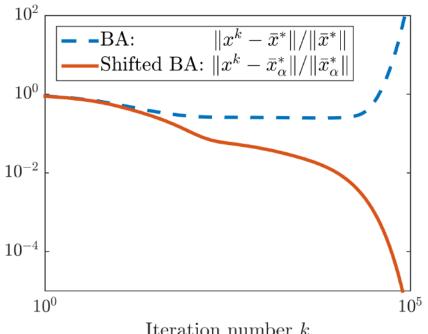






Parallel-beam CT, 90 projections in the range 0° –180°, 80 detector pixels; 128×128 Shepp-Logan phantom; m = 7200 and n = 16384. Both A and B are generated with the GPU-version of the ASTRA toolbox.

$$\rho(BA) = 1.76 \cdot 10^4$$
 $\alpha = 1.85$



Iteration number k

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

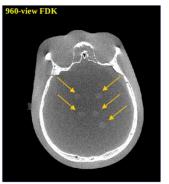
The Shifted BA Iteration converges to fixed point $\bar{x}_{\alpha}^* = (BA + \alpha I)^{-1}Bb$.

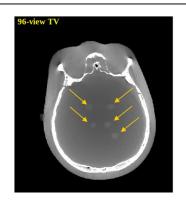
Beyond Sharp Reconstructions → CUQI



Classical method.

Figure credit to E. Sidky





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:

 $x = \underset{\nearrow}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ || \underset{\nearrow}{\mathcal{K}} f - \underset{\nearrow}{g} || + \underset{\longleftarrow}{\operatorname{regularization}}(x) \right\}$

algorithm-error

model-error

data-error

regularization-error

UQ = uncertainty quantification

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



Computational Uncertainty Quantification for Inverse Problems
A research initiative sponsored by Villum Fonden (the Villum Fondation)

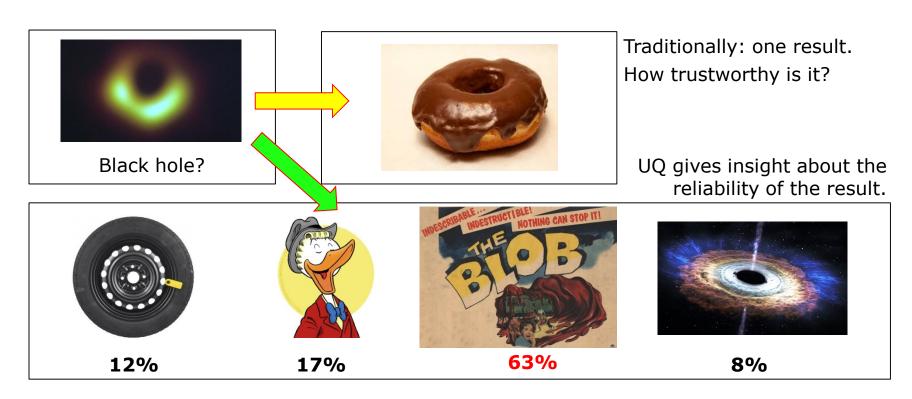




Picture taken by Per Christian Hansen in the garden of the Heian Shrine in Kyoto, Japan

Applied UQ













Research Initiative CUQI



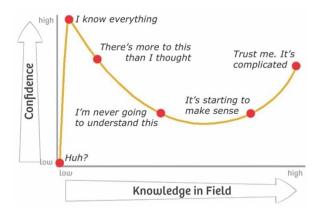


Computational Uncertainty Quantification for Inverse Problems

- 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.



32/31 P. C. Hansen – Inverse Problems Meet DTU, Dec. 2019



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:

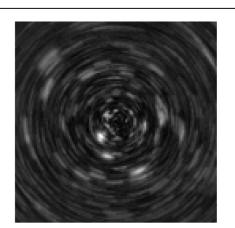
$$p(x|b,\sigma,\delta) = \frac{p(b|x,\sigma) p(x|\delta)}{p(b|\sigma,\delta)} \propto p(b|x,\sigma) p(x|\delta)$$

$$\propto \operatorname{const} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2\right) \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\delta}{2} \|x\|_2^2\right)$$

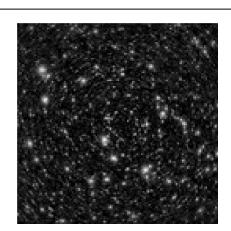
$$\propto \exp\left(-\|Ax - b\|_2^2 - \alpha \|x\|_2^2\right), \quad \alpha = \delta \sigma^2.$$

UQ in Image Deblurring

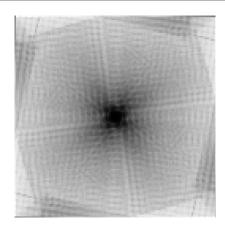




Measured blurred image.



A solution (MAP estimator).



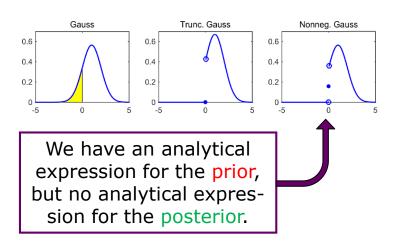
UQ shows uncertainty in each pixel; white denotes high uncertainty.



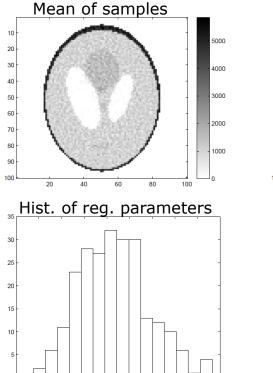


If the prior or likelihood is non-Gaussian, we must **sample** the posterior: we generate <u>many</u> random instances of the regularized solution with the specified likelihood and prior.

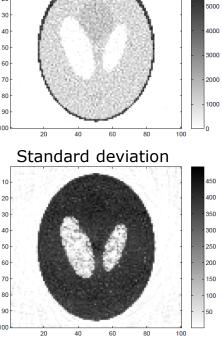
Bardsley, Hansen, MCMC Algorithms for Non-negativity Constrained Inverse Problems, 2019.



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



275 28 285 29 295

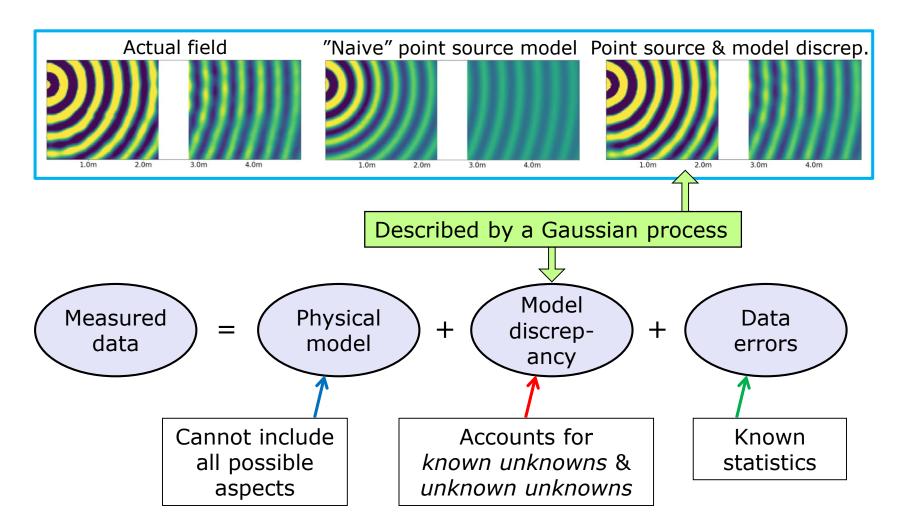


MAP estimate

Case: UQ for Model Discrepancies



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



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.

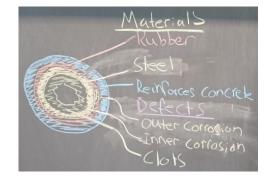
Example: Fault Inspection

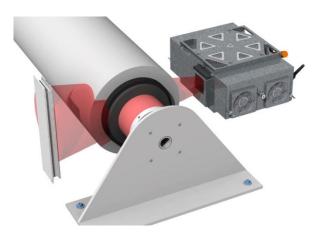




Use X-ray scanning to compute crosssectional images of oil pipes on the seabed. Detect *defects*, *cracks*, etc. in the pipe.







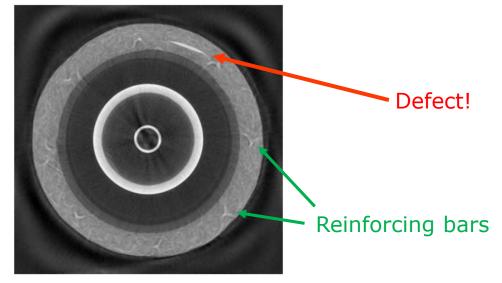
Required in the math. model

Required in the math. model

Strength of the X-ray source.

Specification of the oil pipe.

Structure of the oil pipe.



38/31 P. C. Hansen – Inverse Problems Meet DTU, Dec. 2019