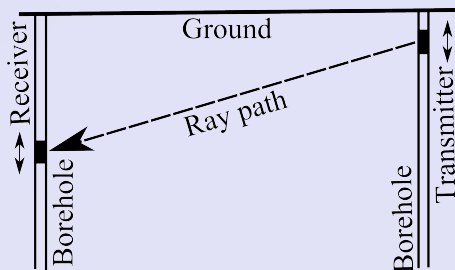


# Gaussian priors

## Example 5 (Matlab)



- ▶ Assume that two vertical boreholes have been drilled in the ground and the goal is to produce an image of electric permittivity  $\epsilon$  of ground layers in between the holes.



## Example 5 (Matlab) continued

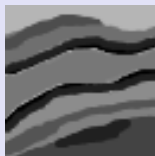
- ▶ The data are produced by transmitting a high power electromagnetic wave from one hole to the other where it is to be detected.
- ▶ The transmitter and receiver can move up and down in the holes and data are gathered using several distinct transmitter-receiver -location pairs.
- ▶ Recordings are done in both boreholes in order to obtain as complete set of data as possible.
- ▶ Transmitted rays are assumed to propagate linearly through the ground to the receiver. Possible reflections and refractions are neglected.



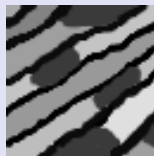
# Gaussian priors

## Example 5 (Matlab) continued

- ▶ The target of measurements is the phase (or phase shift)  $\varphi$  of the transmitted electromagnetic wave.
- ▶ The phase depends on permittivity according to the differential equation  $d\varphi = c\epsilon ds$ , where  $c$  is a constant and  $ds$  is a differential path length.
- ▶ The exact ground layer structures are assumed to be the following  $64 \times 64$  pixel images:



(a)



(b)



## Example 5 (Matlab) continued

- ▶ The discretized unknown permittivity is denoted by  $X$  and the data by  $Y$ .
- ▶ These are related through the linear forward model  $Y = AX + N$  ( $N = \text{noise}$ ) in which  $A$  follows from  $\varphi = \int_{\ell} d\varphi = c \int_{\ell} \varepsilon ds$  applied to a set of linear ray paths ( $\ell = \text{ray path}$ ).
- ▶ The matrix  $A$  corresponds to sixteen different transmitter locations, eight equally spaced locations per a borehole, and to 64 equally spaced receiver positions per one transmitter location.
- ▶ Noise in the measurements is assumed to be zero-mean Gaussian white noise with standard deviation  $\sigma$ .



## Example 5 (Matlab) continued

- ▶ The task is to find a MAP estimate corresponding to the following two priors:
  1. Gaussian white noise prior  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha I)$ ,
  2. Gaussian structural prior  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Gamma)$ .
- ▶ In the latter prior  $\Gamma = \alpha^2(W^T W)^{-1}$  in which  $W$  is a discrete approximation of the directional differential operator  $\partial_d = d_1 \partial_1 + d_2 \partial_2$ .
- ▶ Direction  $d = (d_1, d_2)$  is the *a priori* known direction of the ground layers, which in (a) and (b) makes an angle  $\phi = \pi/9$  and  $\phi = \pi/6$  with the ground (horizontal), respectively.



## Example 5 (Matlab) continued

### Solution

- ▶ In the case 1. (white noise prior), the MAP estimate coincides with the solution of Example 3, i.e.

$$x_{MAP} = [A^T A + (\sigma^2/\alpha^2)I]^{-1}A^T y.$$

- ▶ In the case 2. (structural prior), the approach of Example 3 yields

$$\begin{aligned}x_{MAP} &= [A^T A + (\sigma^2/\alpha^2)W^T W]^{-1}A^T y \\&= [W^T W^T^{-1}A^T A W^{-1}W + (\sigma^2/\alpha^2)W^T W]^{-1}A^T y \\&= W^{-1}[W^T^{-1}A^T A W^{-1} + (\sigma^2/\alpha^2)I]^{-1}W^T^{-1}A^T y \\&= W^{-1}[\tilde{A}^T \tilde{A} + (\sigma^2/\alpha^2)I]^{-1}\tilde{A}^T y,\end{aligned}$$

with  $\tilde{A} = AW^{-1}$ .



## Example 5 (Matlab) continued

- ▶ Matrix  $W$  for  $\phi = \pi/9$  and  $\phi = \pi/6$  can be found as shown in (d)-part of Example 4.
- ▶ Since the dimensionality of the unknown ( $64 \times 64$ ) is somewhat higher than that of the data ( $16 \times 64$ ) it makes sense to write the formulas for the MAP estimates in the equivalent forms

$$(a) : x_{MAP} = A^T [AA^T + (\sigma^2/\alpha^2)I]^{-1}y$$

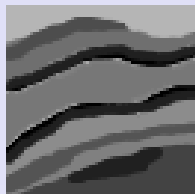
$$(b) : x_{MAP} = W^{-1}\tilde{A}^T [\tilde{A}\tilde{A}^T + (\sigma^2/\alpha^2)I]^{-1}y,$$

in which the matrix to be inverted is smaller. These formulas can be derived from the original ones, for example, using the singular value decomposition (SVD).



# Gaussian priors

## Example 5 (Matlab) continued



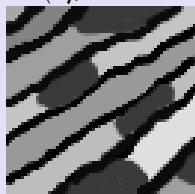
(a), exact



(a), white noise



(a), structural



(b), exact



(b), white noise



(b), structural





# Gaussian priors

## Theorem 1

If the forward model is linear of the form  $Y = AX + N$ , where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is a known matrix, and  $X$ ,  $Y$  and  $N$  are random variables, and if  $X$  and  $N$  are mutually independent Gaussian variables with probability densities

$$\pi_{pr}(x) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \bar{x}_{pr})^T \Gamma_{pr}^{-1}(x - \bar{x}_{pr})\right),$$

$$\pi_n(n) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(n - \bar{n})^T \Gamma_n^{-1}(n - \bar{n})\right),$$

then the resulting posterior density is Gaussian

$$\pi_{post}(x | y) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \bar{x}_{post})^T \Gamma_{post}^{-1}(x - \bar{x}_{post})\right),$$



## Theorem 1 continued

whose posterior mean and covariance matrix are given by

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{x}_{post} &= (\Gamma_{pr}^{-1} + A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A)^{-1} (A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} (y - \bar{n}) + \Gamma_{pr}^{-1} \bar{x}_{pr}) \\ &= \bar{x}_{pr} + \Gamma_{pr} A^T (A \Gamma_{pr} A^T + \Gamma_n)^{-1} (y - A \bar{x}_{pr} - \bar{n}),\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma_{post} &= (\Gamma_{pr}^{-1} + A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A)^{-1} \\ &= \Gamma_{pr} - \Gamma_{pr} A^T (A \Gamma_{pr} A^T + \Gamma_n)^{-1} A \Gamma_{pr}.\end{aligned}$$



## Theorem 1 continued

### Proof

The posterior density is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(x | y) &\propto \pi_{pr}(x)\pi(y | x) = \pi_{pr}(x)\pi_n(y - Ax) \\ &\propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \bar{x}_{pr})^T \Gamma_{pr}^{-1}(x - \bar{x}_{pr})\right. \\ &\quad \left.- \frac{1}{2}(y - Ax - \bar{n})^T \Gamma_n^{-1}(y - Ax - \bar{n})\right).\end{aligned}$$

This clearly is a Gaussian density, since  $Q(x | y)$  in the argument of the exponent function  $\pi(x | y) \propto \exp(-\frac{1}{2}Q(x | y))$  is a quadratic form. The posterior density can be normalized, since the prior  $\pi_{pr}(x)$  can be normalized even though the  $\pi(y | x)$  can be non-normalizable due to the possible non-triviality of the null-space of  $A$ .



## Theorem 1 continued

The covariance matrix can be obtained from the highest order term of the quadratic form

$$\begin{aligned} Q(x | y) &= (x - \bar{x}_{pr})^T \Gamma_{pr}^{-1} (x - \bar{x}_{pr}) + (y - Ax - \bar{n})^T \Gamma_n^{-1} (y - Ax - \bar{n}) \\ &= x^T (\Gamma_{pr}^{-1} + A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A)^{-1} x + \dots, \end{aligned}$$

giving  $\Gamma_{post} = (\Gamma_{pr}^{-1} + A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A)^{-1}$ . The second form given follows from the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula stating that, for any invertible matrices  $B$  and  $C$ , it holds

$$(B + UCV)^{-1} = B^{-1} - B^{-1}U(C^{-1} + VB^{-1}U)^{-1}VB^{-1}.$$

(Direct product proves this. Try!)



## Theorem 1 continued

Choosing  $B = \Gamma_{pr}^{-1}$ ,  $C = \Gamma_n^{-1}$  and  $V = U^T = A$  yields

$$(\Gamma_{pr}^{-1} + A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A)^{-1} = \Gamma_{pr} - \Gamma_{pr} A^T (A \Gamma_{pr} A^T + \Gamma_n)^{-1} A \Gamma_{pr}.$$

The mean can be found through  $\tilde{Q}(\tilde{x} | \tilde{y}) = Q(x | y)$  in which

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{x} &= W_{pr}(x - \bar{x}_{pr}) \\ \tilde{y} &= W_n(y - A\bar{x}_{pr} - \bar{n}) \\ \tilde{A} &= W_n A W_{pr}^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

with  $W_{pr} = \sqrt{\Gamma_{pr}^{-1}}$  and  $W_n = \sqrt{\Gamma_n^{-1}}$ . (If the eigenvalue decomposition of a symmetric and positive definite matrix  $B$  is given by  $B = V D V^T$ , then  $\sqrt{B} = V \sqrt{D} V^T$ .) We have:



## Theorem 1 continued

$$Q(x | y) = \tilde{Q}(\tilde{x} | \tilde{y}) = (\tilde{y} - \tilde{A}\tilde{x})^T (\tilde{y} - \tilde{A}\tilde{x}) + \tilde{x}^T \tilde{x},$$

which is minimized by  $\tilde{x}_{MAP} = W_{pr}(x_{MAP} - \bar{x}_{pr})$ , that is,  $x_{MAP} = \bar{x}_{pr} + W_{pr}^{-1}\tilde{x}_{MAP}$ . For a Gaussian density maximum coincides with the mean, i.e.,  $\bar{x}_{post} = x_{MAP}$ . Hence, based on Examples 3 and 5, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{x}_{post} = x_{MAP} &= \bar{x}_{pr} + W_{pr}^{-1}(\tilde{A}^T \tilde{A} + I)^{-1} \tilde{A}^T \tilde{y} \\ &= \bar{x}_{pr} + W_{pr}^{-1}(W_{pr}^{-1} A^T W_n^2 A W_{pr}^{-1} + I)^{-1} (W_{pr}^{-1} A^T W_n) W_n (y - A \bar{x}_{pr} - \bar{n}) \\ &= \bar{x}_{pr} + (W_{pr} W_{pr}^{-1} A^T W_n^2 A W_{pr}^{-1} W_{pr} + W_{pr}^2)^{-1} A^T (W_n^2) (y - A \bar{x}_{pr} - \bar{n})\end{aligned}$$



## Theorem 1 continued

$$\begin{aligned} &= \bar{x}_{pr} + (A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A + \Gamma_{pr}^{-1})^{-1} A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} (y - A \bar{x}_{pr} - \bar{n}) \\ &= \bar{x}_{pr} + (A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A + \Gamma_{pr}^{-1})^{-1} (A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} (y - \bar{n}) - (A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A + \Gamma_{pr}^{-1}) \bar{x}_{pr} + \Gamma_{pr}^{-1} \bar{x}_{pr}) \\ &= \bar{x}_{pr} - \bar{x}_{pr} + (\Gamma_{pr}^{-1} + A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A)^{-1} (A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} (y - \bar{n}) + \Gamma_{pr}^{-1} \bar{x}_{pr}) \\ &= (\Gamma_{pr}^{-1} + A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A)^{-1} (A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} (y - \bar{n}) + \Gamma_{pr}^{-1} \bar{x}_{pr}) = \bar{x}_{post}. \end{aligned}$$

It holds that  $(A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A + \Gamma_{pr}^{-1})^{-1} A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} = \Gamma_{pr} A^T (A \Gamma_{pr} A^T + \Gamma_n)^{-1}$ .  
Namely, we have:

$$(A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A + \Gamma_{pr}^{-1})^{-1} A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} = (W_{pr} \tilde{A}^T \tilde{A} W_{pr} + W_{pr}^2)^{-1} W_{pr} \tilde{A}^T W_n$$



## Theorem 1 continued

$$\begin{aligned} &= W_{pr}^{-1}(\tilde{A}^T \tilde{A} + I)^{-1} W_{pr}^{-1} W_{pr} \tilde{A}^T W_n \\ &= W_{pr}^{-1}(\tilde{A}^T \tilde{A} + I)^{-1} \tilde{A}^T W_n = W_{pr}^{-1} \tilde{A}^T (\tilde{A} \tilde{A}^T + I)^{-1} W_n \\ &= W_{pr}^{-2} A^T W_n (W_n A W_{pr}^{-2} A^T W_n + I)^{-1} W_n \\ &= \Gamma_{pr} A^T (W_n^{-1} W_n A \Gamma_{pr} A^T W_n W_n^{-1} + W_n^{-2})^{-1} \\ &= \Gamma_{pr} A^T (A \Gamma_{pr} A^T + \Gamma_n)^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Above, equation  $(\tilde{A}^T \tilde{A} + I)^{-1} \tilde{A}^T = \tilde{A}^T (\tilde{A} \tilde{A}^T + I)^{-1}$  follows from the singular value decomposition.





## Theorem 1 continued

Thus, we have

$$(A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A + \Gamma_{pr}^{-1})^{-1} A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} = \Gamma_{pr} A^T (A \Gamma_{pr} A^T + \Gamma_n)^{-1}$$

and, consequently, it holds

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x}_{post} &= \bar{x}_{pr} + (A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} A + \Gamma_{pr}^{-1})^{-1} A^T \Gamma_n^{-1} (y - A \bar{x}_{pr} - \bar{n}) \\ &= \bar{x}_{pr} + \Gamma_{pr} A^T (A \Gamma_{pr} A^T + \Gamma_n)^{-1} (y - A \bar{x}_{pr} - \bar{n}). \end{aligned}$$



# Examples of non-Gaussian priors

- ▶ Frequently used non-Gaussian priors include, for example,
  1.  $\ell^1$ -prior (impulse prior) of the form  $\pi_{pr}(x) \propto \exp(-\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|)$ , which can be used to reconstruct well-localized objects,
  2. total variation (TV) prior  $\pi_{pr}(f) \propto \exp\left(-\alpha \int_{\Omega} |\nabla f| d\Omega\right)$ , beneficial in reconstructing images with sharp edges,
  3. hierarchical prior  $\pi_{pr}(x) = \int \pi_{pr}(x | \gamma) \pi_{hyper}(\gamma) d\gamma$ , in which  $\pi_{pr}(x | \gamma)$  is conditional on hyperparameter  $\gamma$  with the prior (hyperprior)  $\pi_{hyper}(\gamma)$ .
  4. prior constraints limiting the unknown, e.g., to a relatively small region of interest (ROI).



## Examples of non-Gaussian priors

- ▶ Gaussian priors usually lead to more or less smooth reconstructions.
- ▶ If sharp structures need to be produced, one can use, e.g.,  $\ell^1$ -prior, if the goal is to find focal objects or impulses.
- ▶ Total variation (TV) prior can be used if the goal is to reconstruct edge structures, for example, to preserve the edges of a noisy image. With a high value of parameter  $\alpha$ , TV-prior it is likely to produce a cartoon-like effect.
- ▶ Hierarchical priors can be advantageous, e.g., when the prior information can be classified to different hierarchy levels, e.g., schools, classes, students.
- ▶ Using a region of interest (ROI) can be useful, for instance, to speed up exploration of the posterior density.

