# Bayesian inference and convex geometry: theory, methods, and algorithms.

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- We are interested in an unknown image  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .
- We measure y, related to x by a statistical model p(y|x).
- The recovery of x from y is ill-posed or ill-conditioned, resulting in significant uncertainty about x.
- For example, in many imaging problems

$$y = Ax + w$$
,

for some operator A that is rank-deficient, and additive noise w.

- We use priors to reduce uncertainty and deliver accurate results.
- Given the prior p(x), the posterior distribution of x given y

$$p(x|y) = p(y|x)p(x)/p(y)$$

models our knowledge about x after observing y.

• In this talk we consider that p(x|y) is log-concave; i.e.,

$$p(x|y) = \exp\left\{-\phi(x)\right\}/Z,$$

where  $\phi(x)$  is a convex function and  $Z = \int \exp \{-\phi(x)\} dx$ .

## The predominant Bayesian approach in imaging is MAP estimation

$$\hat{x}_{MAP} = \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}}{\operatorname{argmin}} p(x|y),$$

$$= \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \phi(x),$$
(1)

computed efficiently, even in very high dimensions, by (proximal) convex optimisation (Green et al., 2015; Chambolle and Pock, 2016).

## Illustrative example: astronomical image reconstruction

**Recover**  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  from low-dimensional degraded observation

 $y = M\mathcal{F}x + w,$ 

where  $\mathcal{F}$  is the continuous Fourier transform,  $M \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times d}$  is a measurement operator and w is Gaussian noise. We use the model

 $p(x|y) \propto \exp\left(-\|y - M\mathcal{F}x\|^2/2\sigma^2 - \theta\|\Psi x\|_1\right) \mathbf{1}_{\mathbb{R}^n_+}(x).$ (2)



Figure : Radio-interferometric image reconstruction of the W28 supernova.

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## MAP estimation by proximal optimisation

To compute  $\hat{x}_{MAP}$  we use a proximal splitting algorithm. Let

$$f(x) = \|y - M\mathcal{F}x\|^2/2\sigma^2, \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = \theta \|\Psi x\|_1 + -\log \mathbf{1}_{\mathbb{R}^n_+}(x),$$

where f and g are l.s.c. convex on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , and f is  $L_f$ -Lipschitz differentiable.

For example, we could use a proximal gradient iteration

$$x^{m+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{g}^{L_{f}^{-1}} \{ x^{m} + L_{f}^{-1} \nabla f(x^{m}) \},$$

converges to  $\hat{x}_{MAP}$  at rate O(1/m), with poss. acceleration to  $O(1/m^2)$ .

**Definition** Proximity mappings of a convex function g: For  $\lambda > 0$ , the  $\lambda$ -proximity mapping of g is defined as (Moreau, 1962)

$$\operatorname{prox}_{g}^{\lambda}(x) \triangleq \operatorname{argmin}_{u \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}} g(u) + \frac{1}{2\lambda} ||u - x||^{2}.$$

#### The alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) algorithm

$$\begin{split} x^{m+1} &= \mathrm{prox}_{f}^{\lambda} \{ z^{m} - u^{m} \}, \\ z^{m+1} &= \mathrm{prox}_{g}^{\lambda} \{ x^{m+1} + u^{m} \}, \\ u^{m+1} &= u^{m} + x^{m+1} - z^{m+1}, \end{split}$$

also converges to  $\hat{x}_{MAP}$  very quickly, and does not require f to be smooth.

However, MAP estimation has some limitations, e.g.,

- it provides little information about p(x|y),
- It struggles with unknown/partially unknown models,
- it is not theoretically well understood (yet).

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#### Monte Carlo integration

Given a set of samples  $X_1, \ldots, X_M$  distributed according to p(x|y), we approximate posterior expectations and probabilities

$$\frac{1}{M}\sum_{m=1}^M h(X_m) \to \mathrm{E}\{h(x)|y\}, \quad \text{as } M \to \infty$$

#### Markov chain Monte Carlo:

Construct a Markov kernel  $X_{m+1}|X_m \sim K(\cdot|X_m)$  such that the Markov chain  $X_1, \ldots, X_M$  has p(x|y) as stationary distribution.

MCMC simulation in high-dimensional spaces is very challenging.

Suppose for now that  $p(x|y) \in C^1$ . Then, we can generate samples by mimicking a Langevin diffusion process that converges to p(x|y) as  $t \to \infty$ ,

$$\mathbf{X}: \quad \mathrm{d}\mathbf{X}_t = \frac{1}{2}\nabla \log p\left(\mathbf{X}_t | y\right) \mathrm{d}t + \mathrm{d}W_t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T, \quad \mathbf{X}(0) = x_0.$$

where W is the *n*-dimensional Brownian motion.

Because solving  $X_t$  exactly is generally not possible, we use an Euler Maruyama approximation and obtain the "unadjusted Langevin algorithm"

ULA: 
$$X_{m+1} = X_m + \delta \nabla \log p(X_m | y) + \sqrt{2\delta} Z_{m+1}, \quad Z_{m+1} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{I}_n)$$

ULA is remarkably efficient when p(x|y) is sufficiently regular.

Suppose that

$$p(x|y) \propto \exp\left\{-f(x) - g(x)\right\}$$
(3)

where f(x) and g(x) are l.s.c. convex functions from  $\mathbb{R}^d \to (-\infty, +\infty]$ , f is  $L_f$ -Lipschitz differentiable, and  $g \notin C^1$ .

For example,

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \| \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x} \|_2^2, \quad \boldsymbol{g}(x) = \alpha \| \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{x} \|_{\dagger} + \mathbf{1}_{\mathcal{S}}(x),$$

for some linear operators A, B, norm  $\|\cdot\|_{\dagger}$ , and convex set S.

Unfortunately, such non-models are beyond the scope of ULA.

**Idea:** Regularise p(x|y) to enable efficiently Langevin sampling.

## Moreau-Yoshida approximation of p(x|y) (Pereyra, 2015):

Let  $\lambda > 0$ . We propose to approximate p(x|y) with the density

$$p_{\lambda}(x|y) = \frac{\exp[-f(x) - g_{\lambda}(x)]}{\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \exp[-f(x) - g_{\lambda}(x)] dx},$$

where  $g_{\lambda}$  is the Moreau-Yoshida envelope of g given by

$$g_{\lambda}(x) = \inf_{u \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{g(u) + (2\lambda)^{-1} \|u - x\|_2^2\},\$$

and where  $\lambda$  controls the approximation error involved.

## Moreau-Yoshida approximations

## Key properties (Pereyra, 2015; Durmus et al., 2018):

- $\forall \lambda > 0$ ,  $p_{\lambda}$  defines a proper density of a probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .
- Onvexity and differentiability:
  - $p_{\lambda}$  is log-concave on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .
  - $p_{\lambda} \in \mathcal{C}^1$  even if p not differentiable, with

 $\nabla \log p_{\lambda}(x|y) = -\nabla f(x) + \{\operatorname{prox}_{g}^{\lambda}(x) - x\}/\lambda,$ 

and  $\operatorname{prox}_{g}^{\lambda}(x) = \operatorname{argmin} u \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} g(u) + \frac{1}{2\lambda} ||u - x||^{2}$ .

•  $\nabla \log p_{\lambda}$  is Lipchitz continuous with constant  $L \leq L_f + \lambda^{-1}$ .

S Approximation error between  $p_{\lambda}(x|y)$  and p(x|y):

- $\lim_{\lambda \to 0} \|p_{\lambda} p\|_{TV} = 0.$
- If g is  $L_g$ -Lipchitz, then  $||p_{\lambda} p||_{TV} \le \lambda L_g^2$ .

#### **Examples of Moreau-Yoshida approximations:**



Figure : True densities (solid blue) and approximations (dashed red).

We approximate  ${\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}}$  with the "regularised" auxiliary Langevin diffusion

$$\mathbf{X}^{\lambda}: \quad \mathrm{d}\mathbf{X}_{t}^{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2} \nabla \log \mathbf{p}_{\lambda} \left(\mathbf{X}_{t}^{\lambda} | \mathbf{y}\right) \mathrm{d}t + \mathrm{d}W_{t}, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T, \quad \mathbf{X}^{\lambda}(0) = x_{0},$$

which targets  $p_{\lambda}(x|y)$ . Remark: we can make  $\mathbf{X}^{\lambda}$  arbitrarily close to  $\mathbf{X}$ .

Finally, an Euler Maruyama discretisation of  $\mathbf{X}^{\lambda}$  leads to the (Moreau-Yoshida regularised) proximal ULA

 $\text{MYULA}: \quad X_{m+1} = (1 - \frac{\delta}{\lambda})X_m - \delta \nabla f\{X_m\} + \frac{\delta}{\lambda} \operatorname{prox}_g^{\lambda}\{X_m\} + \sqrt{2\delta}Z_{m+1},$ 

where we used that  $\nabla g_{\lambda}(x) = \{x - \operatorname{prox}_{g}^{\lambda}(x)\}/\lambda$ .

#### Non-asymptotic estimation error bound

## Theorem 2.1 (Durmus et al. (2018))

Let  $\delta_{\lambda}^{max} = (L_1 + 1/\lambda)^{-1}$ . Assume that g is Lipchitz continuous. Then, there exist  $\delta_{\epsilon} \in (0, \delta_{\lambda}^{max}]$  and  $M_{\epsilon} \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall \delta < \delta_{\epsilon}$  and  $\forall M \ge M_{\epsilon}$ 

$$\|\delta_{x_0} Q_{\delta}^M - p\|_{TV} < \epsilon + \lambda L_g^2,$$

where  $Q_{\delta}^{M}$  is the kernel assoc. with *M* iterations of MYULA with step  $\delta$ .

Note:  $\delta_{\epsilon}$  and  $M_{\epsilon}$  are explicit and tractable. If f + g is strongly convex outside some ball, then  $M_{\epsilon}$  scales with order  $\mathcal{O}(d \log(d))$ . See Durmus et al. (2018) for other convergence results.

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Where does the posterior probability mass of x lie?

• A set  $C_{\alpha}$  is a posterior credible region of confidence level  $(1 - \alpha)$ % if

$$\mathbf{P}[x \in C_{\alpha}|y] = 1 - \alpha.$$

• The *highest posterior density* (HPD) region is decision-theoretically optimal (Robert, 2001)

 $C_{\alpha}^{*} = \{x : \phi(x) \leq \gamma_{\alpha}\}$ 

with  $\gamma_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}$  chosen such that  $\int_{C_{\alpha}^{*}} p(x|y) dx = 1 - \alpha$  holds.

# Visualising uncertainty in radio-interferometric imaging

#### Astro-imaging experiment with redundant wavelet frame (Cai et al., 2017).



 $\hat{x}_{MLE}(y)$ 



 $\hat{x}_{MMSE} = \mathrm{E}(x|y)$ 



credible intervals (scale  $10 \times 10$ )







$$\begin{split} \hat{x}_{MLE}(y) & \hat{x}_{MMSE} = \mathbb{E}(x|y) & \text{credible intervals (scale 10 × 10)} \\ 3\text{C2888 and M31 radio galaxies (size 256 × 256 pixels). Computing time 1 minute.} \\ M = 10^5 \text{ iterations. Estimation error w.r.t. MH implementation 3\%.} \end{split}$$

## Hypothesis testing for image structures

Bayesian hypothesis test for specific image structures (e.g., lesions)

- $\mathrm{H}_{0}: \mathrm{The}\ \mathrm{structure}\ \mathrm{of}\ \mathrm{interest}\ \mathrm{is}\ \mathrm{ABSENT}\ \mathrm{in}\ \mathrm{the}\ \mathrm{true}\ \mathrm{image}$
- $\mathrm{H}_{1}:$  The structure of interest is PRESENT in the true image

The null hypothesis  $H_0$  is rejected with significance  $\alpha$  if

 $\mathsf{P}(\mathrm{H}_0|y) \leq \alpha.$ 

Key idea: (Repetti et al., 2018)

Let S denote the region of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  associated with  $H_0$ , containing all images without the structure of interest. Then

 $\mathcal{S} \cap \mathcal{C}_{\alpha} = \emptyset \iff \mathsf{P}(H_0|y) \le \alpha$ .

If in addition S is convex, then checking  $S \cap \widetilde{\mathcal{C}}_{\alpha} = \emptyset$  is a convex problem

$$\min_{\bar{x},\underline{x}\in\mathbb{R}^d} \|\bar{x}-\underline{x}\|_2^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \bar{x}\in\mathcal{C}_\alpha, \quad \underline{x}\in\mathcal{S}.$$

# Uncertainty quantification in MRI imaging



MRI experiment: test images  $\bar{x} = \underline{x}$ , hence we fail to reject  $H_0$  and conclude that there is little evidence to support the observed structure.

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# Uncertainty quantification in MRI imaging



MRI experiment: test images  $\bar{x} \neq \underline{x}$ , hence we reject  $H_0$  and conclude that there is significant evidence in favour of the observed structure.

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## Problem statement

Consider the class of Bayesian models

$$p(x|y,\theta) = \frac{p(y|x)p(x|\theta)}{p(y|\theta)},$$

parametrised by a regularisation parameter  $\theta \in \Theta$ . For example,

$$p(x|\theta) = \frac{1}{C(\theta)} \exp \{-\theta \varphi(x)\}, \quad p(y|x) \propto \exp \{-f_y(x)\},$$

with  $f_y$  and  $\varphi$  convex l.s.c. functions, and  $f_y$  L-Lipschitz differentiable.

We assume that  $p(x|\theta)$  is proper, i.e.,

$$C(\theta) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \exp\left\{-\theta\varphi(x)\right\} \mathrm{d}x < \infty$$
,

with  $C(\theta)$  unknown and generally intractable.

In this talk we adopt an empirical Bayes approach and consider the MLE

$$\begin{split} \hat{\theta} &= \operatorname*{argmax}_{\theta \in \Theta} p(y|\theta) \,, \\ &= \operatorname*{argmax}_{\theta \in \Theta} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} p(y, x|\theta) \mathrm{d}x \,, \end{split}$$

which we solve efficiently by using a stochastic gradient algorithm driven by two proximal MCMC kernels (see Fernandez-Vidal and Pereyra (2018)).

Given  $\hat{\theta}$ , we then straightforwardly compute

$$\hat{x}_{MAP} = \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^d}{\operatorname{argmin}} f_y(x) + \hat{\theta}\varphi(x).$$
(4)

We use the following MCMC-driven stochastic gradient algorithm: Initialisation  $x^{(0)}, u^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^d, \theta^{(0)} \in \Theta, \delta_t = \delta_0 t^{-0.8}$ .

for t = 0 to n

- 1. MCMC update  $x^{(t+1)} \sim M_{x|y,\theta^{(t)}}(\cdot|x^{(t)})$  targeting  $p(x|y,\theta^{(t)})$
- 2. MCMC update  $u^{(t+1)} \sim K_{x|\theta^{(t)}}(\cdot|u^{(t)})$  targeting  $p(x|\theta^{(t)})$
- 3. Stoch. grad. update

$$\theta^{(t+1)} = P_{\Theta} \left[ \theta^{(t)} + \delta_t \varphi(u^{(t+1)}) - \delta_t \varphi(x^{(t+1)}) \right].$$

end for

**Output** The iterates  $\theta^{(t)} \rightarrow \hat{\theta}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

# SAPG algorithm driven MCMC kernels

Initialisation  $x^{(0)}$ ,  $u^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\theta^{(0)} \in \Theta$ ,  $\delta_t = \delta_0 t^{-0.8}$ ,  $\lambda = 1/L$ ,  $\gamma = 1/4L$ . for t = 0 to n

1. Coupled Proximal MCMC updates: generate  $z^{(t+1)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{I}_d)$ 

$$\begin{aligned} x^{(t+1)} &= \left(1 - \frac{\gamma}{\lambda}\right) x^{(t)} - \gamma \nabla f_y\left(x^{(t)}\right) + \frac{\gamma}{\lambda} \mathrm{prox}_{\varphi}^{\theta\lambda}\left(x^{(t)}\right) + \sqrt{2\gamma} z^{(t+1)} \,, \\ u^{(t+1)} &= \left(1 - \frac{\gamma}{\lambda}\right) u^{(t)} + \frac{\gamma}{\lambda} \mathrm{prox}_{\varphi}^{\theta\lambda}\left(u^{(t)}\right) + \sqrt{2\gamma} z^{(t+1)} \,, \end{aligned}$$

2. Stochastic gradient update

$$\theta^{(t+1)} = P_{\Theta} \left[ \theta^{(t)} + \delta_t \varphi(u^{(t+1)}) - \delta_t \varphi(x^{(t+1)}) \right].$$

#### end for

**Output** Averaged estimator  $\bar{\theta} = n^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \theta^{(t+1)}$  converges approx. to  $\hat{\theta}$ .

## Illustrative example - Image deblurring with TV- $\ell_2$ prior

We consider the Bayesian image deblurring model

$$p(x|y,\theta) \propto \exp\left(-\|y - Ax\|^2/2\sigma^2 - \alpha\|x\|_2 - \theta\|\nabla_d x\|_{1-2}\right),$$
  
and compute  $\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^+} p(y|\theta).$ 



Figure : Boat image deconvolution experiment.

# Image deblurring with TV- $\ell_2$ prior



(a) Original



(b) Degraded



(c) Emp. Bayes  $\hat{x}_{MAP}$ 

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- The challenges facing modern imaging sciences require a methodological paradigm shift to go beyond point estimation.
- Opportunity for advanced Bayesian inference methods to take central role and deliver impact.
- This requires significantly accelerating inference methods, e.g., by integrating modern stochastic and variational approaches at algorithmic, methodological, and theoretical levels.

# Thank you!

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