

Plug-In SGD: Image Reconstruction in the Age of Machine Learning

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Computational Imaging Group (CIG)

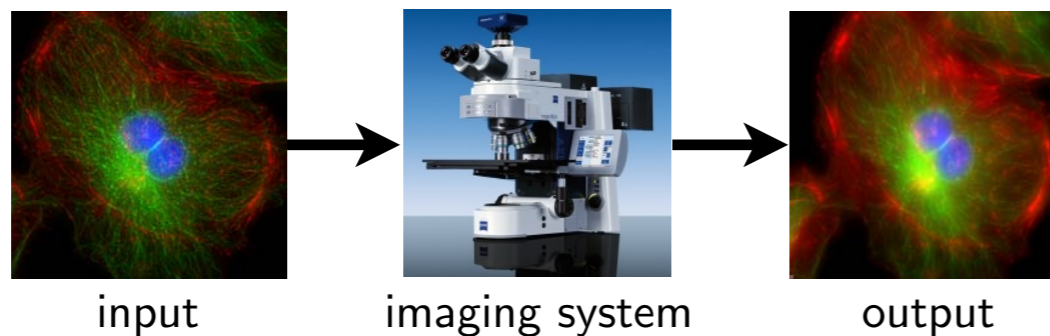
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**Imaging technology is going through a
paradigm shift with computation at its core**

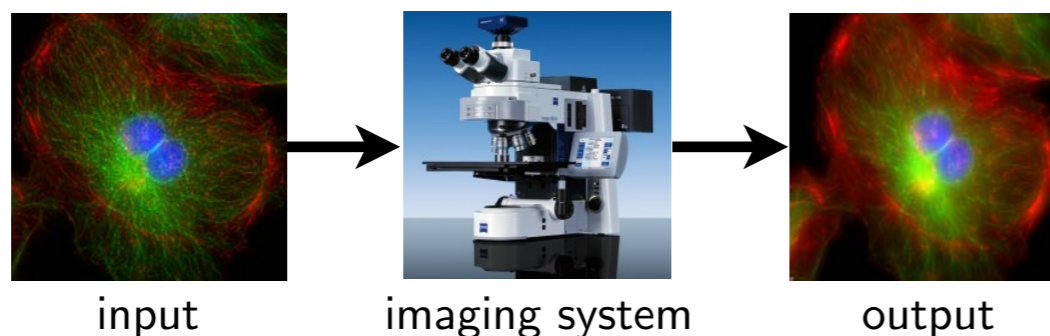
Imaging technology is going through a paradigm shift with computation at its core

Past: Can I see?

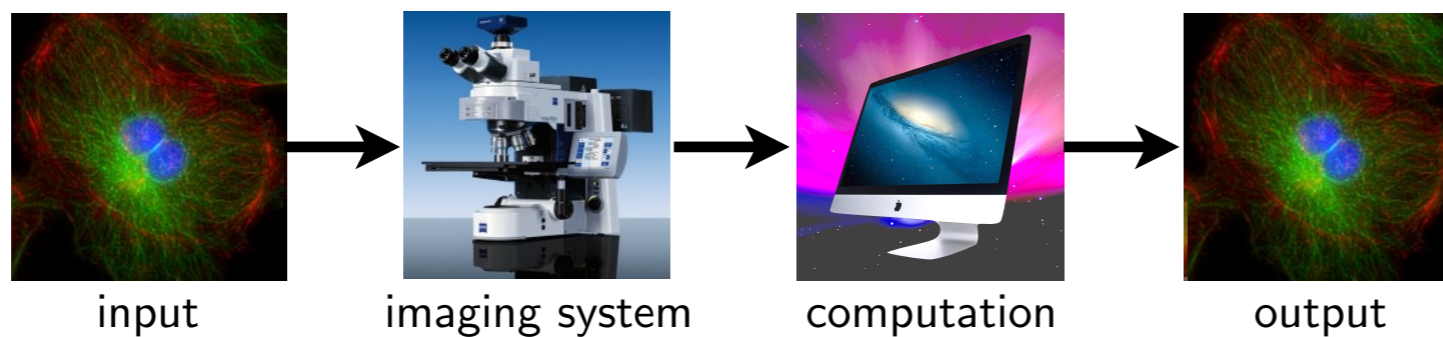


Imaging technology is going through a paradigm shift with computation at its core

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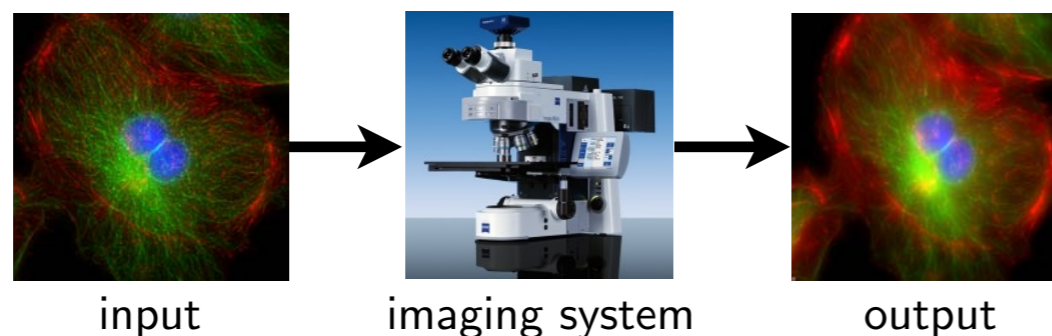


Present: Can I see better?

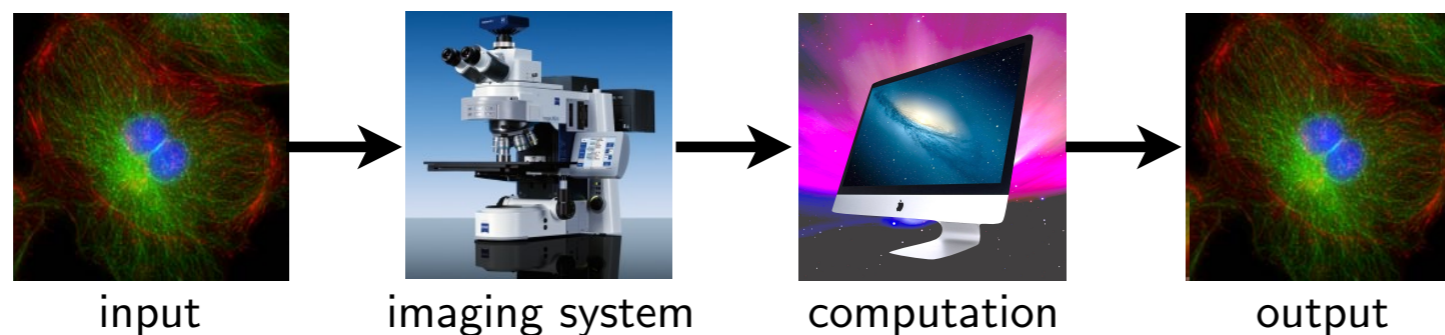


Imaging technology is going through a paradigm shift with computation at its core

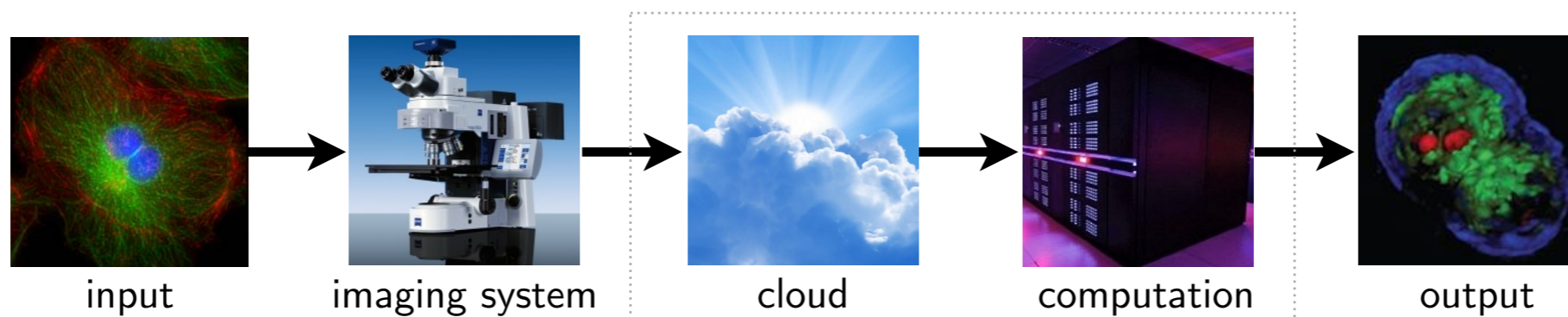
Past: Can I see?



Present: Can I see better?



Future: Can I see more?



Today we will talk about

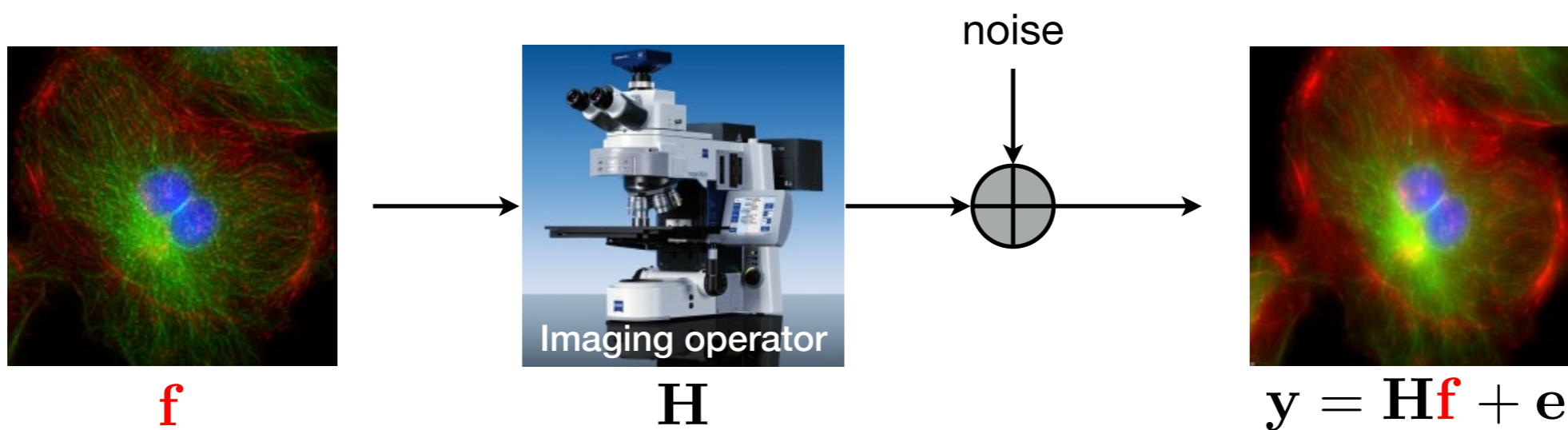
- **Forward models in imaging**
Relating the unknowns to the measured data
- **Notions of ill-posedness and regularization**
When measurements are not enough
- **Optimization at large scales**
When analytical solutions are not enough
- **Plug-and-Play Priors (PnP) at large scales**
When traditional optimization is not enough

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- **Forward models in imaging**
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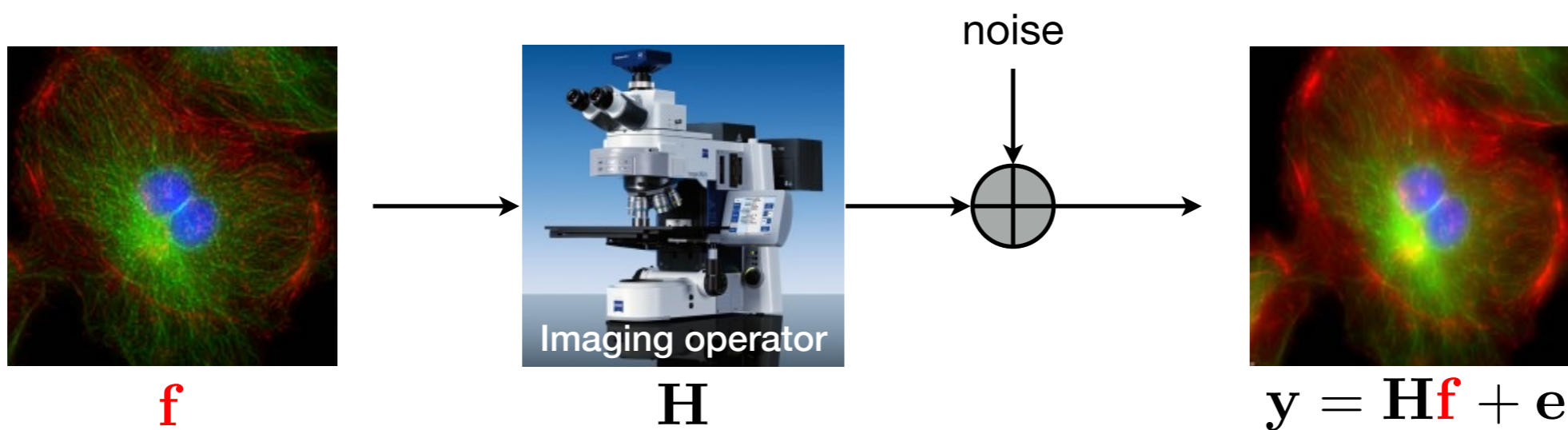
**Forward model relates
the unknown object to the observed data**

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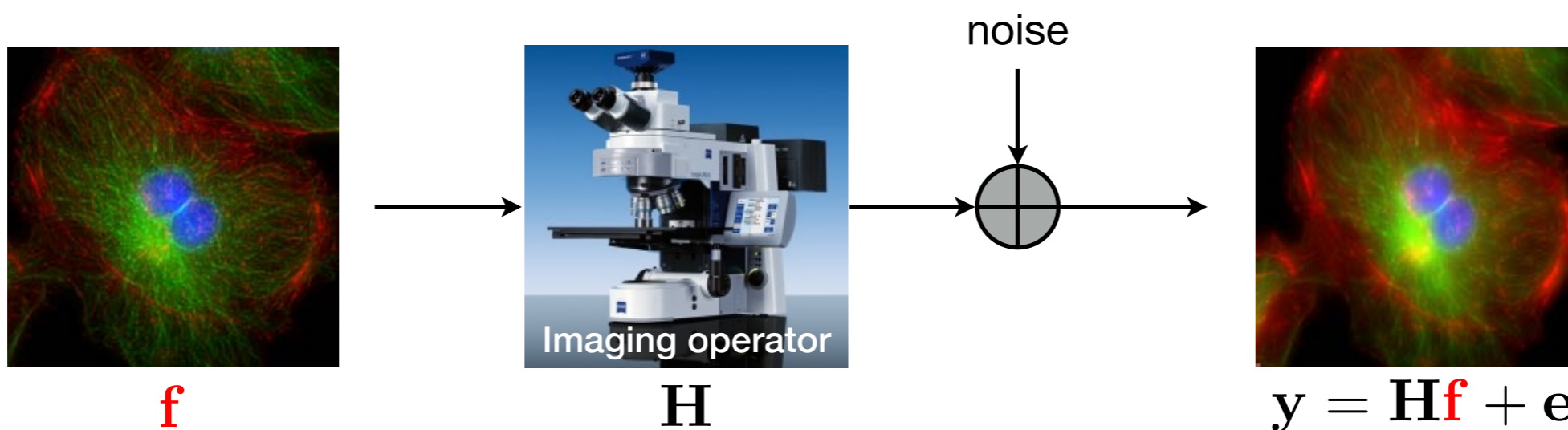
Forward model relates the unknown object to the observed data

Forward problem: generate y from f



Forward model relates the unknown object to the observed data

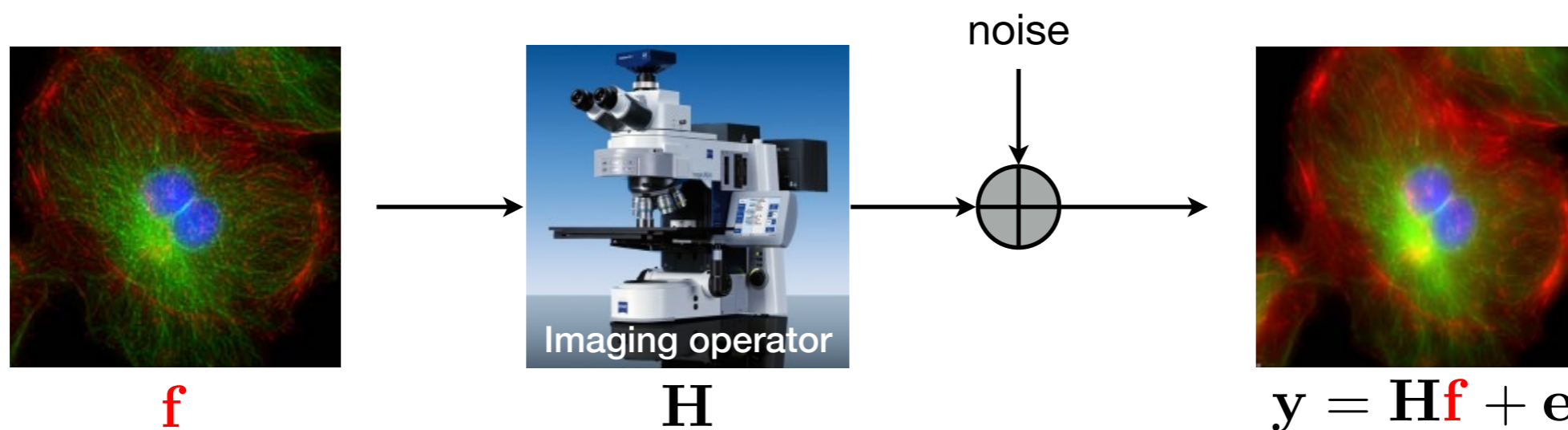
Forward problem: generate y from f



Inverse problem: recover f from y

Forward model relates the unknown object to the observed data

Forward problem: generate y from f

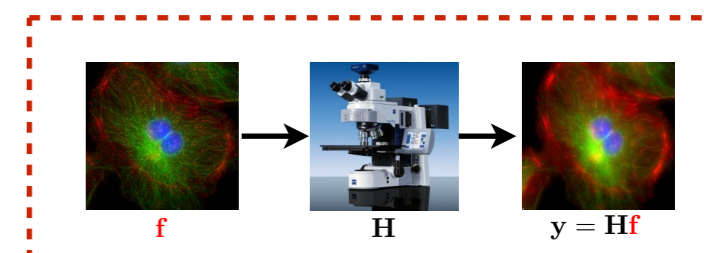


Inverse problem: recover f from y

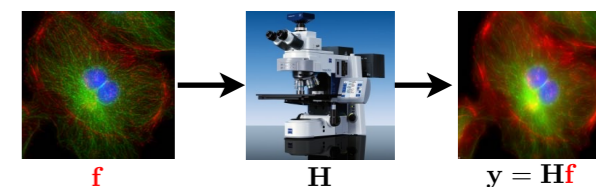
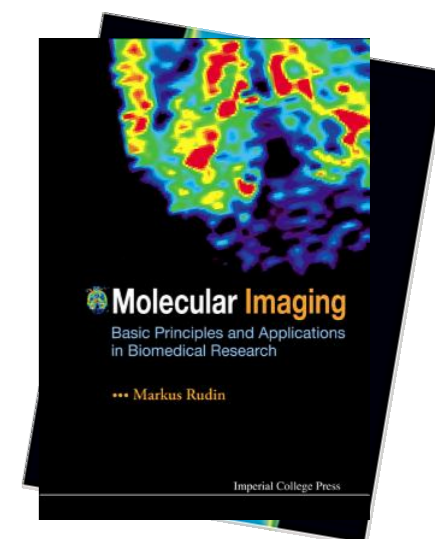
Question: Which problem is harder to solve?

Forward models can be represented as integrals

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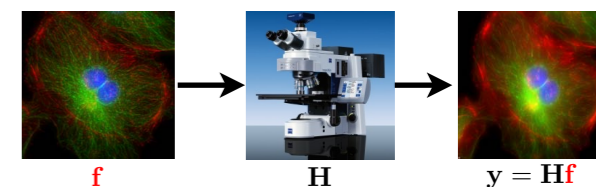
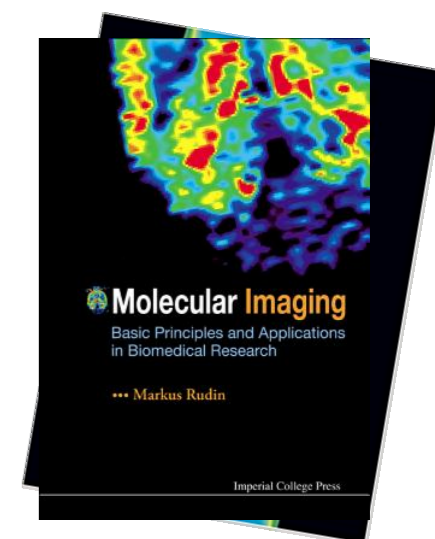


Forward models can be represented as integrals

Unknown molecular/anatomical map:

$$f(\mathbf{r}), \quad \mathbf{r} = (x, y, z, t) \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

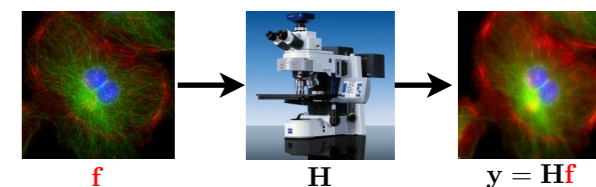
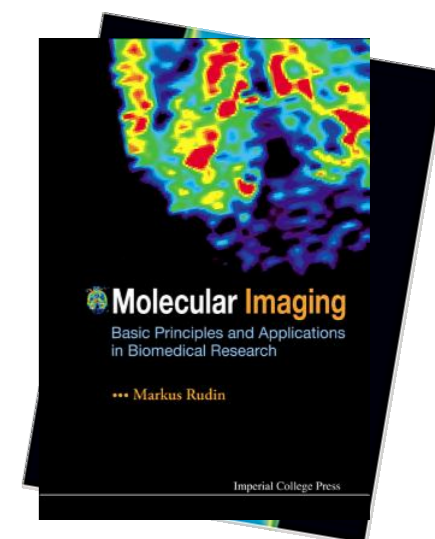
defined over a continuum in space-time



Forward models can be represented as integrals

Unknown molecular/anatomical map: $f(\mathbf{r}), \quad \mathbf{r} = (x, y, z, t) \in \mathbb{R}^d$

Space of finite-energy functions: $f \in L_2(\mathbb{R}^d)$



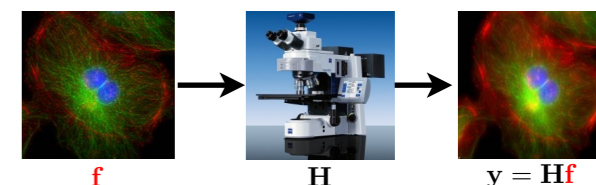
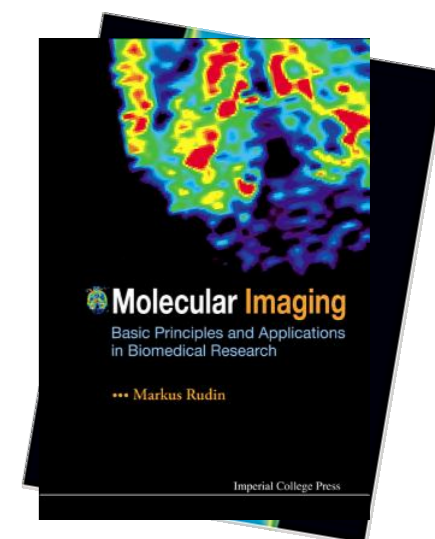
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Imaging operator: $H : s \mapsto \mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_m) = H\{f\}$

from continuum to finite
dimensional: $H : L_2(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$



Forward models can be represented as integrals

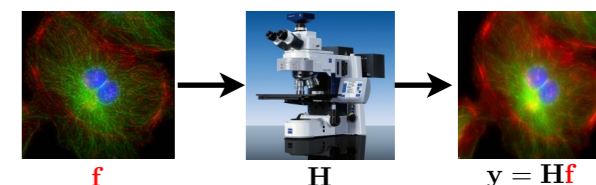
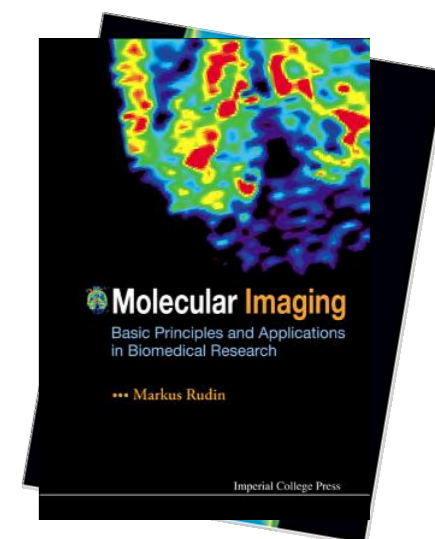
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$$H\{\alpha_1 f_1 + \alpha_2 f_2\} = \alpha_1 H\{f_1\} + \alpha_2 H\{f_2\}$$



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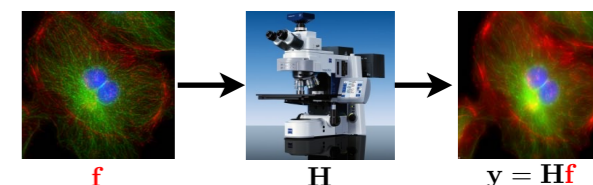
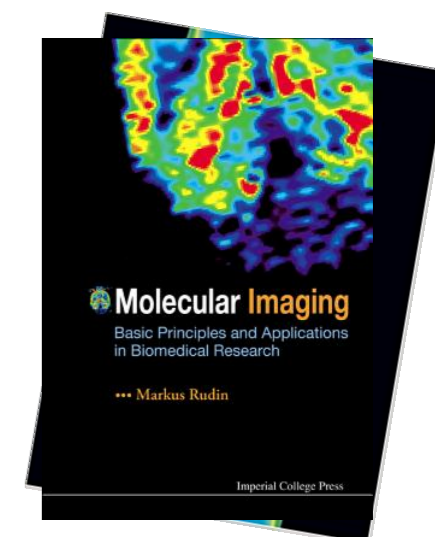
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$$\Rightarrow [\mathbf{y}]_m = y_m = \langle h_m, f \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} h_m(\mathbf{r}) f(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r}$$

by the Riesz representation theorem



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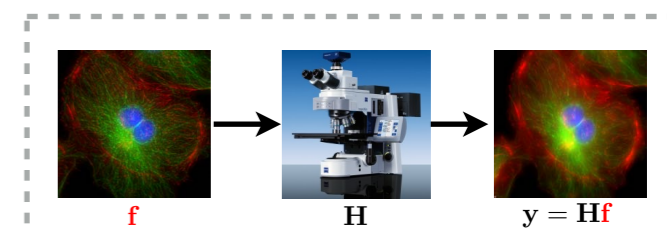
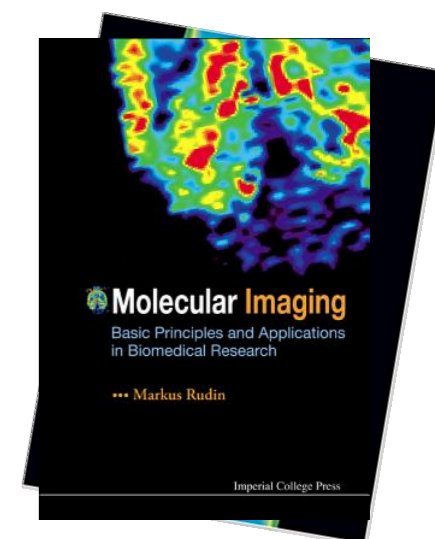
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impulse response of m th detector



**Example imaging operator:
Fourier transform is extensively used in MRI**

Example imaging operator: Fourier transform is extensively used in MRI



“Images are obviously made of sine waves...”

Example imaging operator: Fourier transform is extensively used in MRI

Fourier transform: $\mathcal{F} : L_2(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow L_2(\mathbb{R}^d)$

$$\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{\omega}) = \mathcal{F}\{f\} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(\mathbf{r}) e^{-j\langle \boldsymbol{\omega}, \mathbf{r} \rangle} d\mathbf{r}$$

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Inverse Fourier transform (reconstruction formula)

$$f(\mathbf{r}) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\{f\} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{f}(\boldsymbol{\omega}) e^{j\langle \boldsymbol{\omega}, \mathbf{r} \rangle} d\boldsymbol{\omega} \quad (\text{a.e.})$$

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As a measurement function: $h_m(\mathbf{r}) = e^{-j\langle \boldsymbol{\omega}_m, \mathbf{r} \rangle}$ (complex sinusoid)

$$y_m = \langle h_m, f \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} h_m(\mathbf{r}) f(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r}$$

**Example imaging operator:
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Example imaging operator: Fourier transform is extensively used in MRI

Linear forward model for MRI

$$\hat{s}(\boldsymbol{\omega}_m) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} s(\mathbf{r}) e^{-j\langle \boldsymbol{\omega}_m, \mathbf{r} \rangle} d\mathbf{r}$$

sampling of Fourier transform
 $\mathbf{r} = (x, y, z)$ $\boldsymbol{\omega} = (\omega_x, \omega_y, \omega_z)$

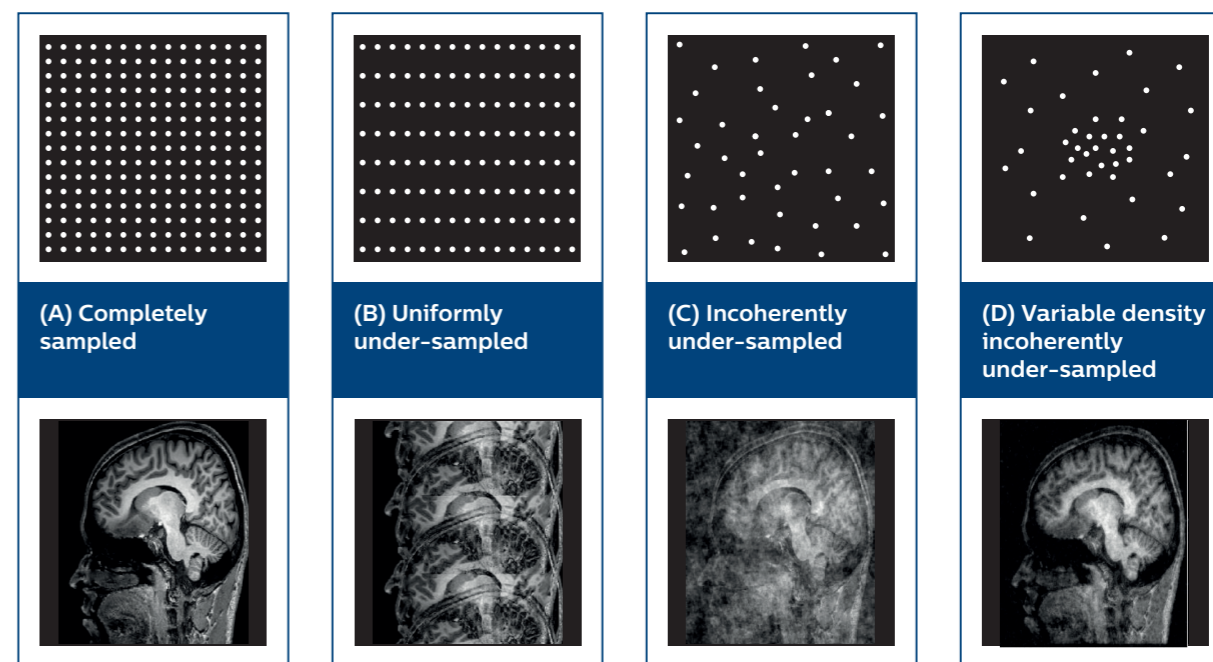


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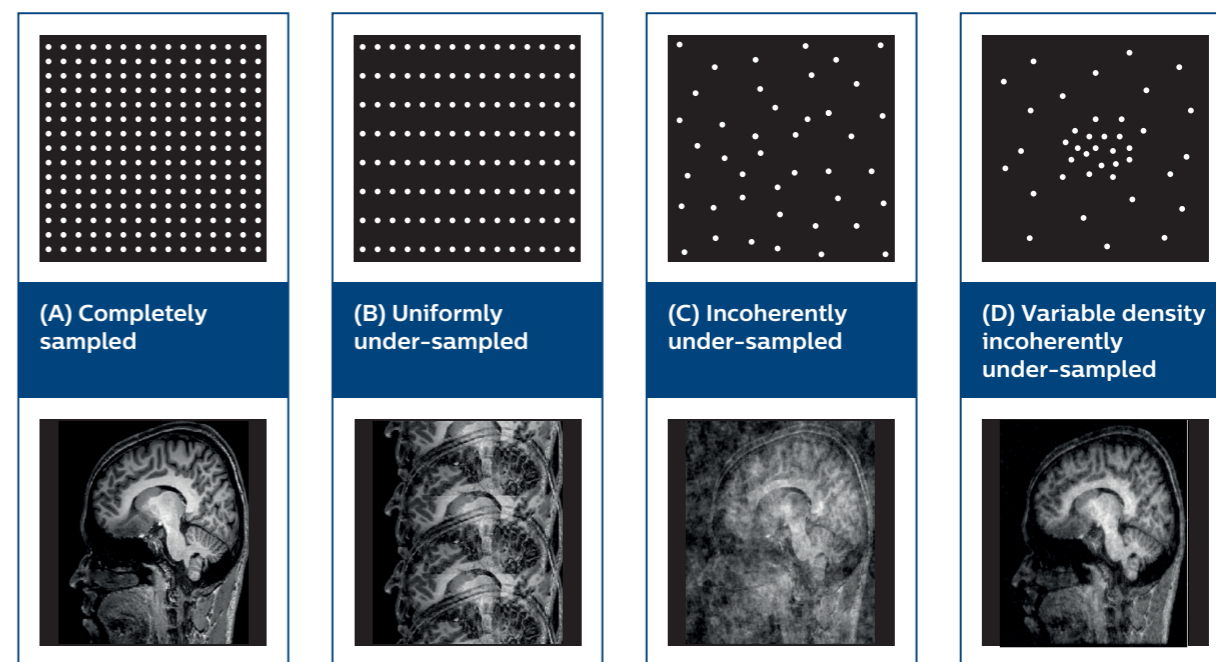
Example imaging operator: Fourier transform is extensively used in MRI

Linear forward model for MRI

$$\hat{s}(\boldsymbol{\omega}_m) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} s(\mathbf{r}) e^{-j\langle \boldsymbol{\omega}_m, \mathbf{r} \rangle} d\mathbf{r}$$

Extended forward model with coil sensitivity

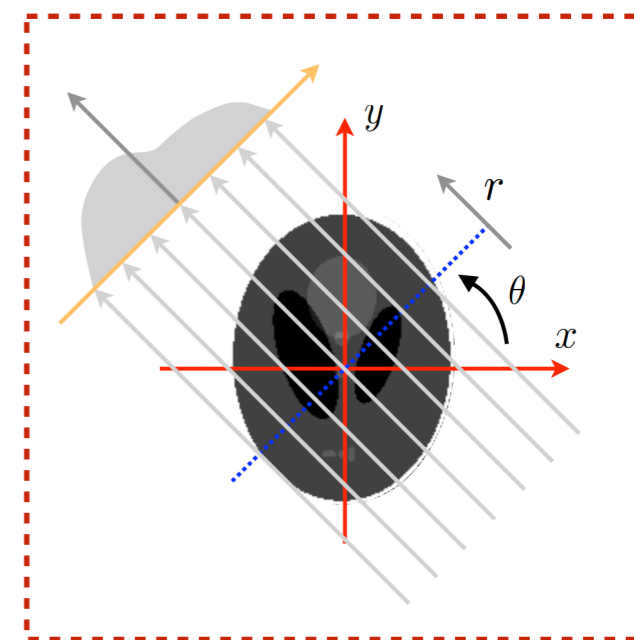
$$\hat{s}_w(\boldsymbol{\omega}_m) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} w(\mathbf{r}) s(\mathbf{r}) e^{-j\langle \boldsymbol{\omega}_m, \mathbf{r} \rangle} d\mathbf{r}$$



Example imaging operator:

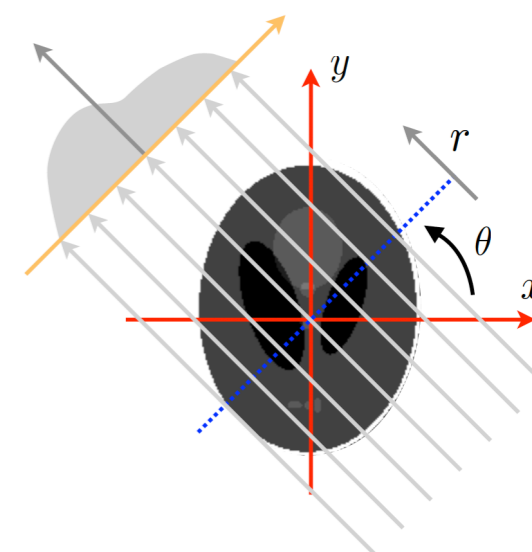
Radon transform is extensively used in tomography

Example imaging operator: Radon transform is extensively used in tomography



Example imaging operator: Radon transform is extensively used in tomography

Projection geometry: $r = t\theta + r\theta^\perp, \quad \theta = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$

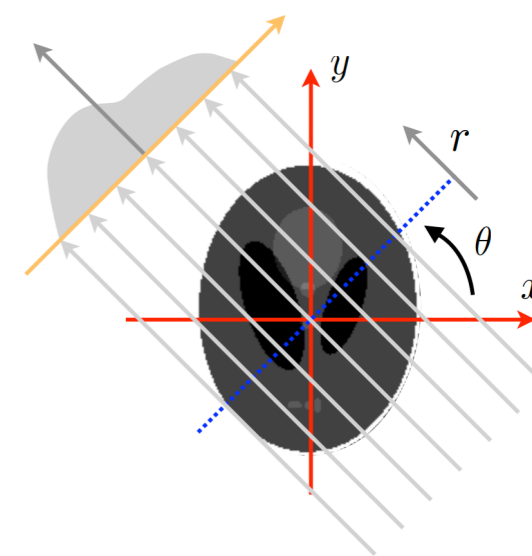


Example imaging operator: Radon transform is extensively used in tomography

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Radon transform computes
line integrals of the object:

$$\begin{aligned} R_\theta\{f(\mathbf{r})\}(t) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t\boldsymbol{\theta} + r\boldsymbol{\theta}^\perp) dr \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(\mathbf{r})\delta(t - \langle \mathbf{r}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \rangle) d\mathbf{r} \end{aligned}$$



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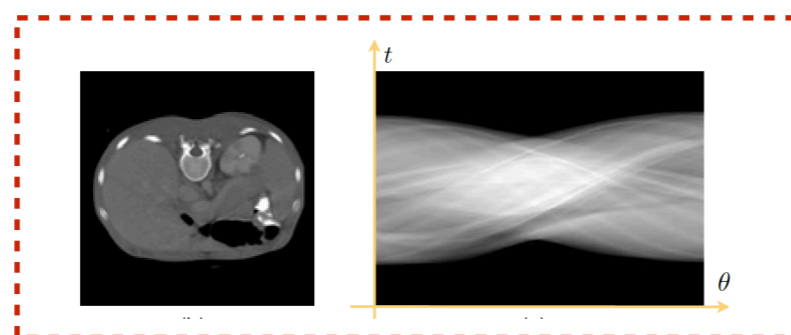
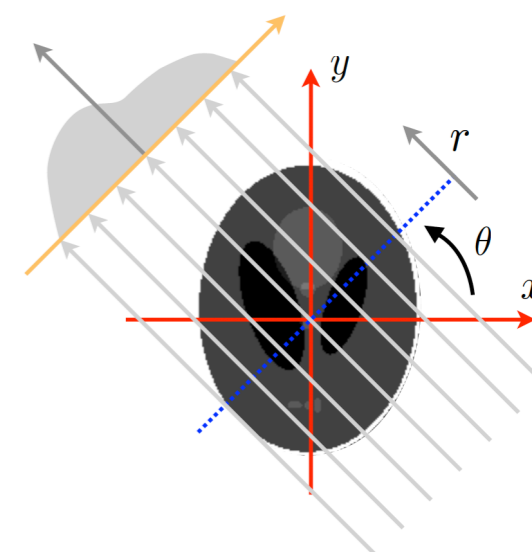


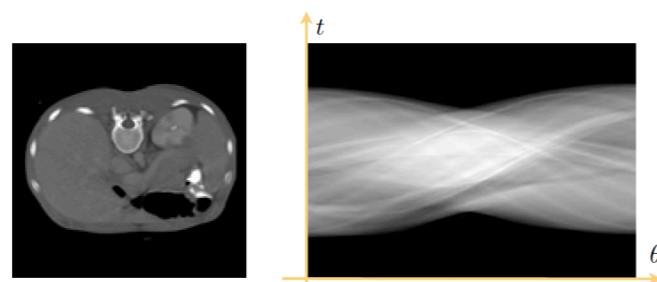
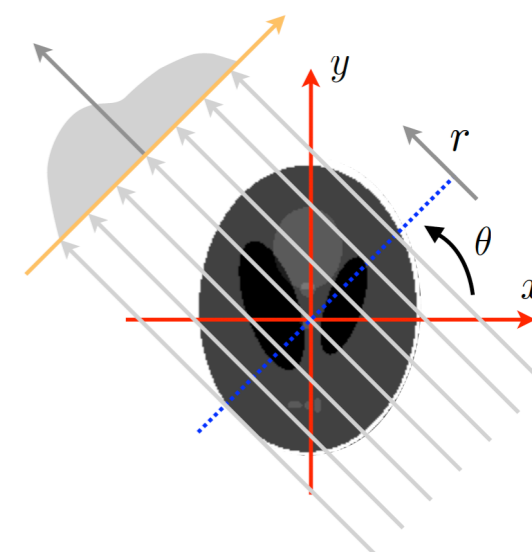
image and its sinogram

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As a measurement function:

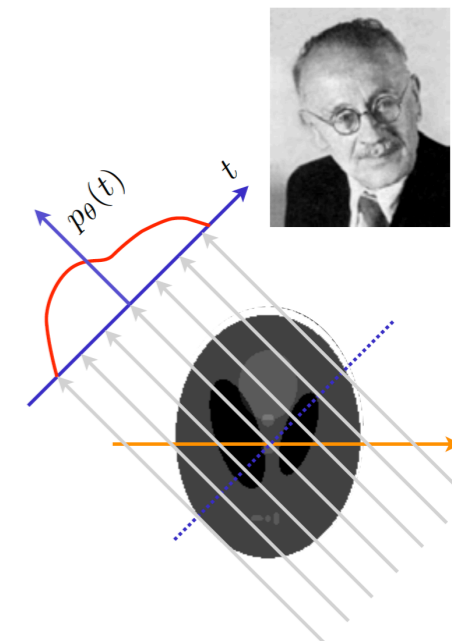
$$h_m(\mathbf{r}) = \delta(t_m - \langle \mathbf{r}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_m \rangle)$$

Central slice theorem relates projections to the Fourier transform of the object

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Radon transform:

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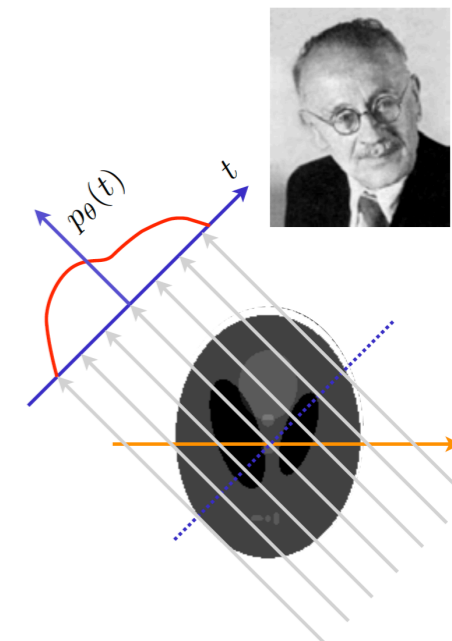
1D and 2D Fourier relationships:

$$\hat{p}_\theta(\omega) = \mathcal{F}_{1D}\{p_\theta\}(\omega)$$

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1D Fourier of data

2D Fourier of image



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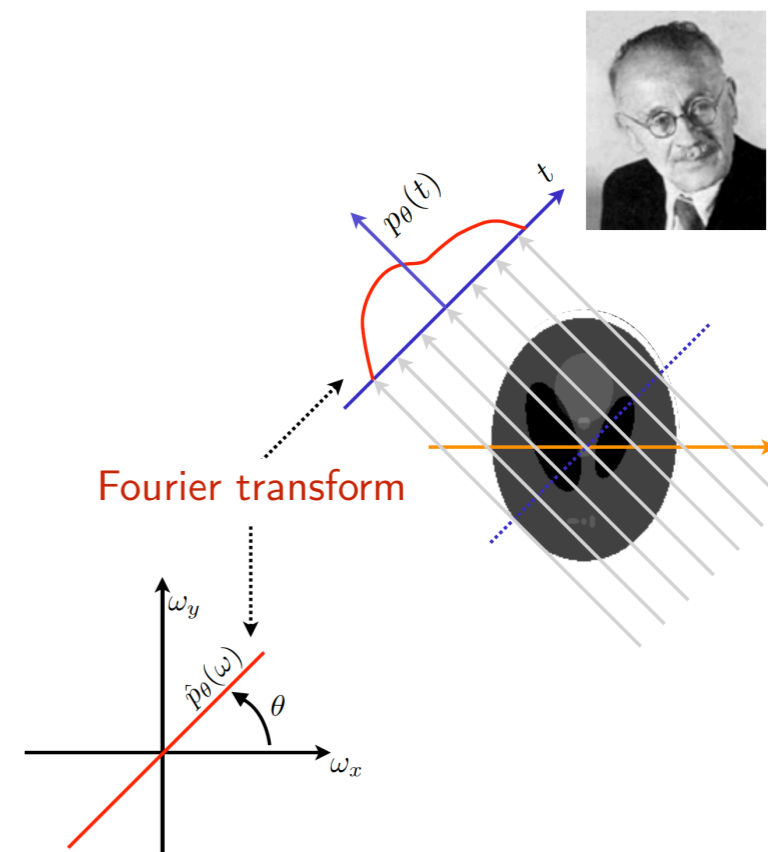
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Central-slice theorem relates projections to Fourier sampling:

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Establishes Fourier relationship between data and image



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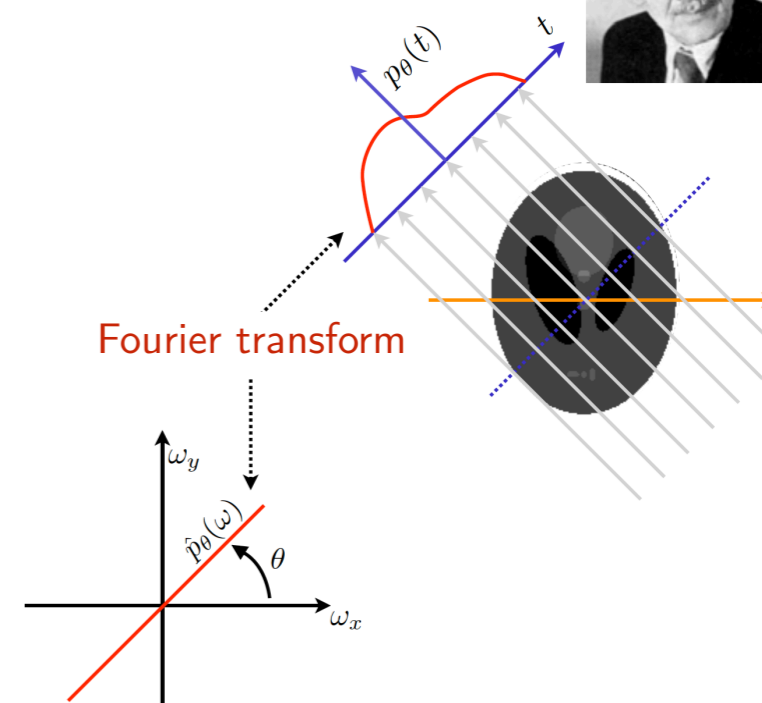
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Proof for angle zero:

$$\hat{f}(\omega, 0) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x, y) e^{-j\omega x} dx dy = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \underbrace{\left(\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x, y) dy \right)}_{p_0(x)} e^{-j\omega x} dx = \hat{p}_0(x)$$

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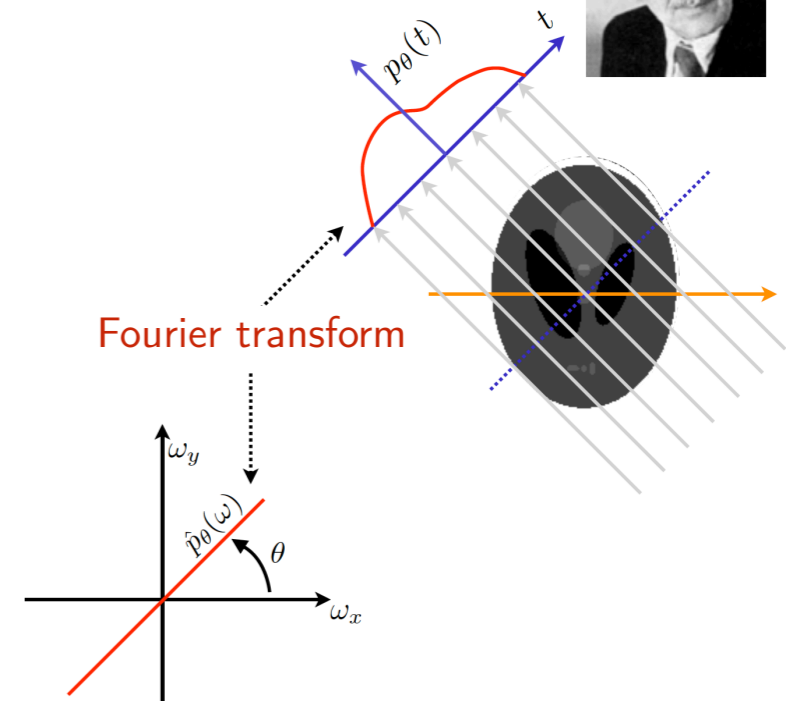


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Proof for angle zero:

Question: How to generalize to other angles?

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**Most imaging systems can be
characterized with a forward model**

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Modality	Radiation	Forward model	Variations
2D or 3D tomography	coherent x-ray	$y_i = R_{\theta_i} x$	parallel, cone beam, spiral sampling
3D deconvolution microscopy	fluorescence	$y = Hx$	brightfield, confocal, light sheet
structured illumination microscopy (SIM)	fluorescence	$y_i = HW_i x$ H: PSF of microscope W_i : illumination pattern	full 3D reconstruction, non-sinusoidal patterns
Positron Emission Tomography (PET)	gamma rays	$y_i = H_{\theta_i} x$	list mode with time-of-flight
Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)	radio frequency	$y = Fx$	uniform or non-uniform sampling in k space
Cardiac MRI (parallel, non-uniform)	radio frequency	$y_{t,i} = F_t W_i x$ W_i : coil sensitivity	gated or not, retrospective registration
Optical diffraction tomography	coherent light	$y_i = W_i F_i x$	with holography or grating interferometry

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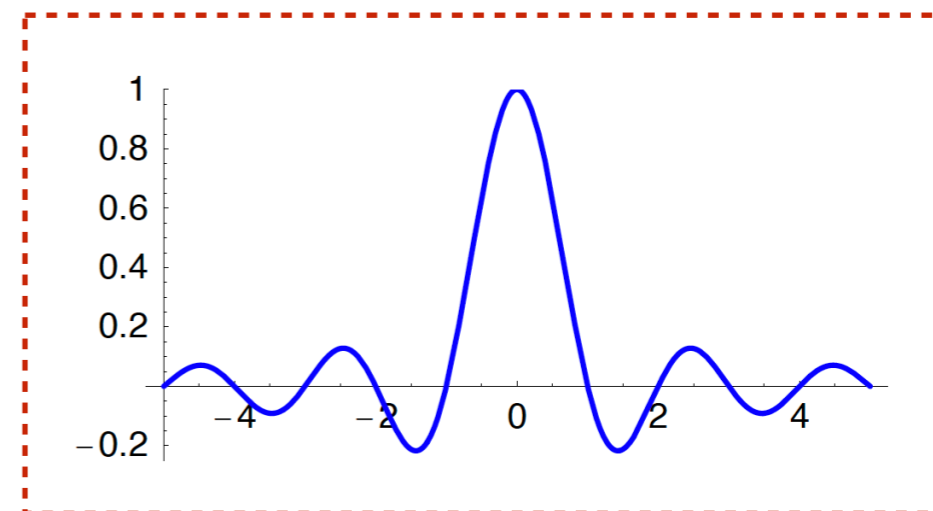
Currently active collaborations at CIG

**Discretization: Continuous domain formalism
easily reduces to a noisy linear system**

Discretization: Continuous domain formalism easily reduces to a noisy linear system

Representation with basis functions:

$$f(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\mathbf{k} \in \Omega} f[\mathbf{k}] \beta_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r})$$



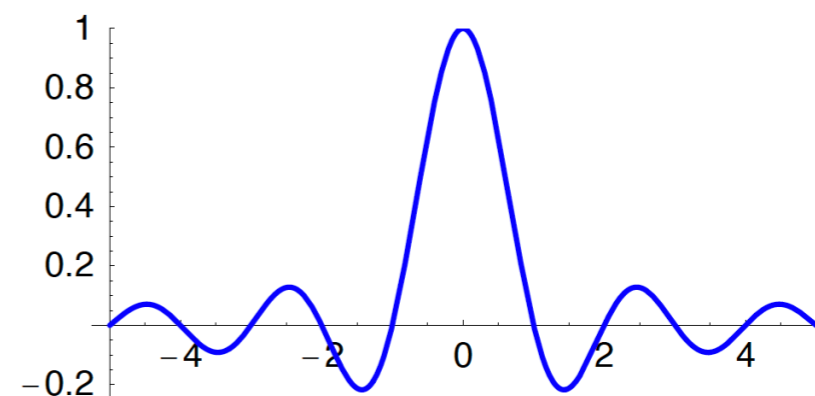
Question: What type of representation is offered by **sinc**?

Discretization: Continuous domain formalism easily reduces to a noisy linear system

Representation with basis functions:

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Signal vector: $\mathbf{f} = \{f[\mathbf{k}]\}_{\mathbf{k} \in \Omega} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

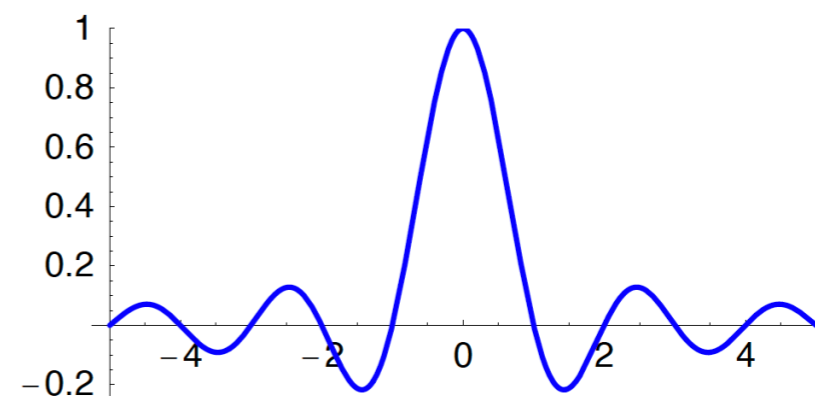


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Discretized measurement model:

$$y_i = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(\mathbf{r}) h_i(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r} + e_i = \langle f, h_i \rangle + e_i, \quad (i = 1, \dots, m)$$

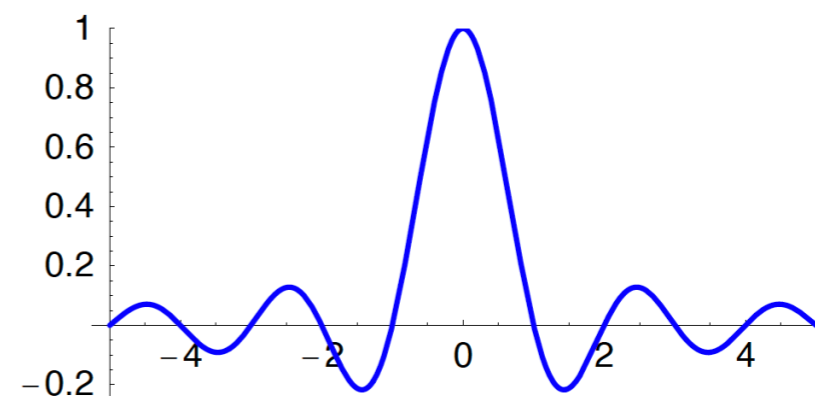
Question: What are the sources of noise?

Discretization: Continuous domain formalism easily reduces to a noisy linear system

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$$f(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\mathbf{k} \in \Omega} f[\mathbf{k}] \beta_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r})$$

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$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{e}}$$

linear system of equations

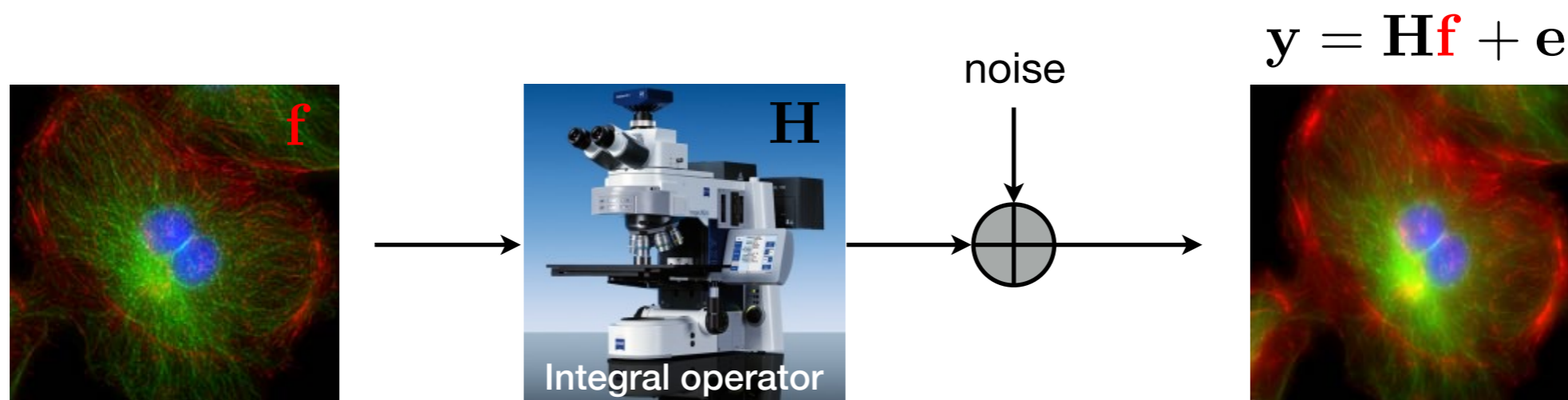
$$[\mathbf{H}]_{i,\mathbf{k}} = \langle h_i, \beta_{\mathbf{k}} \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} h_m(\mathbf{r}) \beta_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r}$$

To conclude “forward models”

Many imaging problems reduce to solving large and noisy linear systems

$$y = \mathbf{H}f + e$$

Setting up the right forward model is a big step towards being able to form high quality images

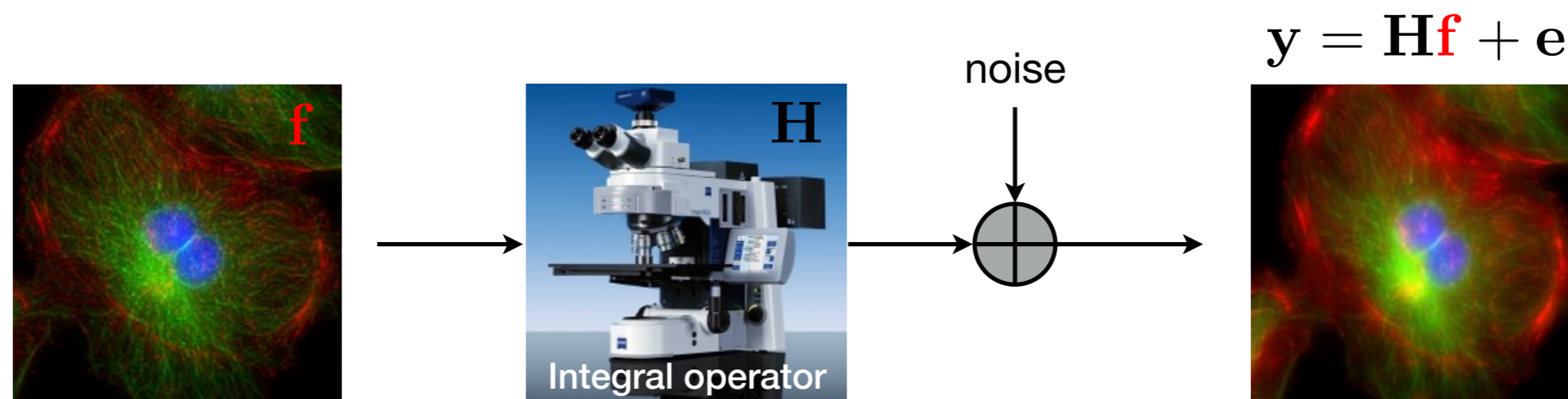


Today we will talk about

- Forward models in imaging
Relating the unknowns to the measured data
- **Notions of ill-posedness and regularization**
When measurements are not enough
- Optimization at large scales
When analytical solutions are not enough
- Plug-and-Play Priors (PnP) at large scales
When traditional optimization is not enough

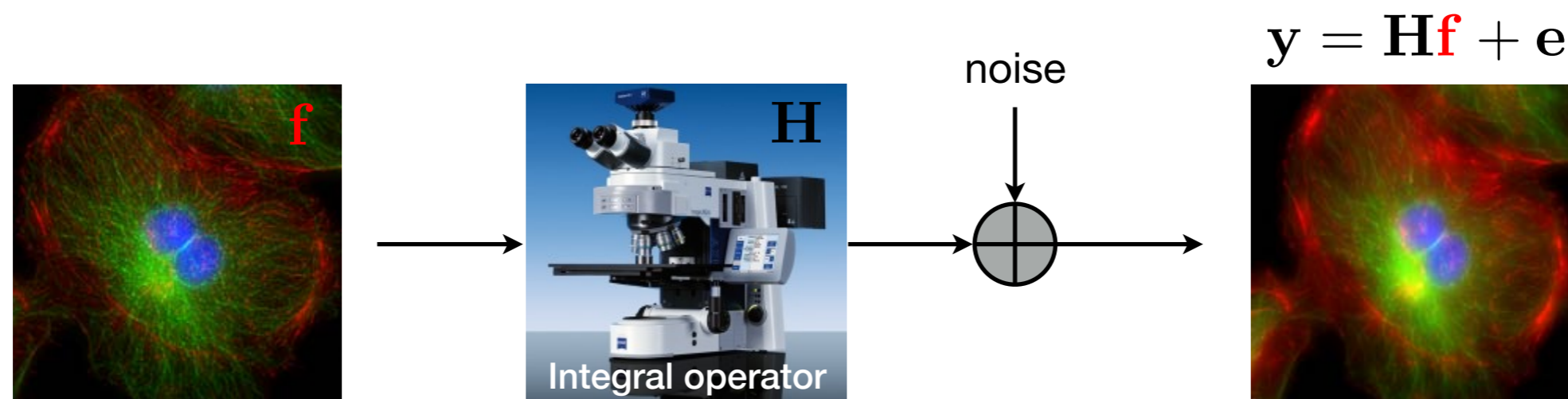
What makes imaging inverse problems difficult?

What makes imaging inverse problems difficult?



Problem: recover f from noisy measurements y

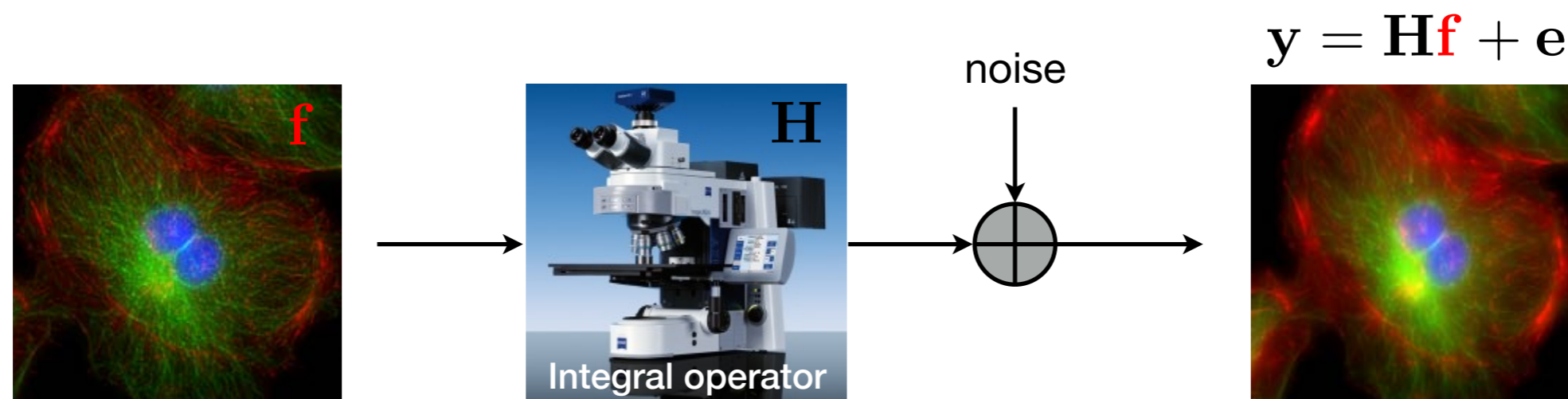
What makes imaging inverse problems difficult?



Problem: recover \mathbf{f} from noisy measurements \mathbf{y}

Question: Why can't we simply compute the inverse $\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{H}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$?

What makes imaging inverse problems difficult?

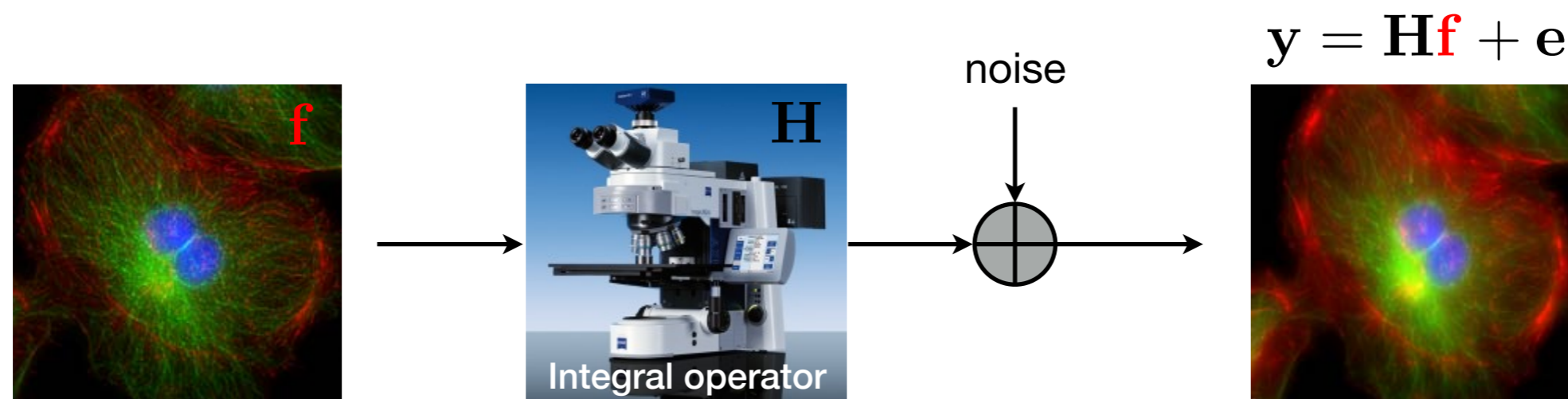


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1) Difficult to invert the matrix as it is non-square or too large

What makes imaging inverse problems difficult?

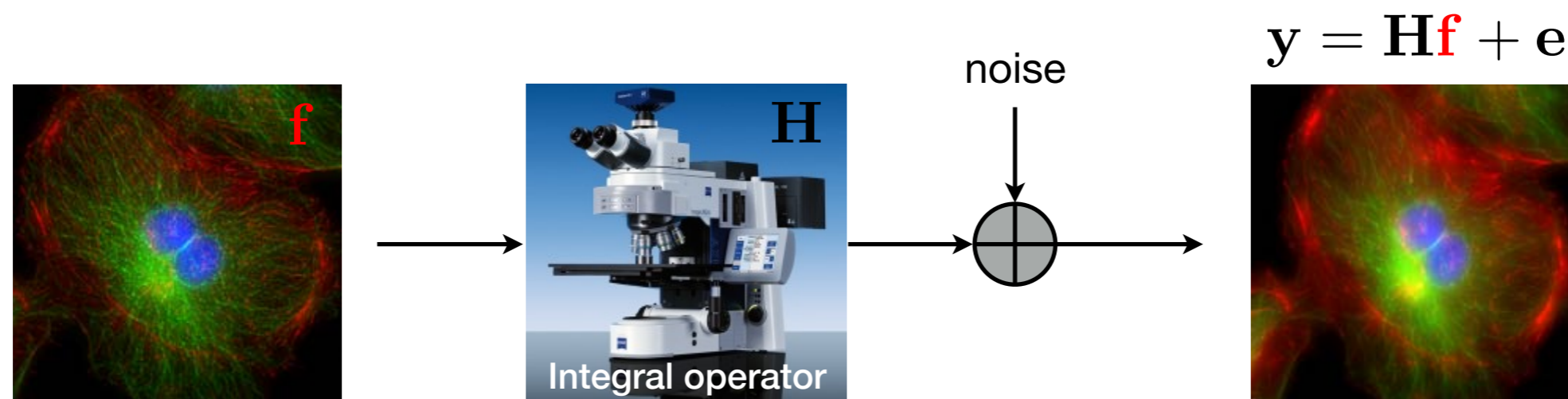


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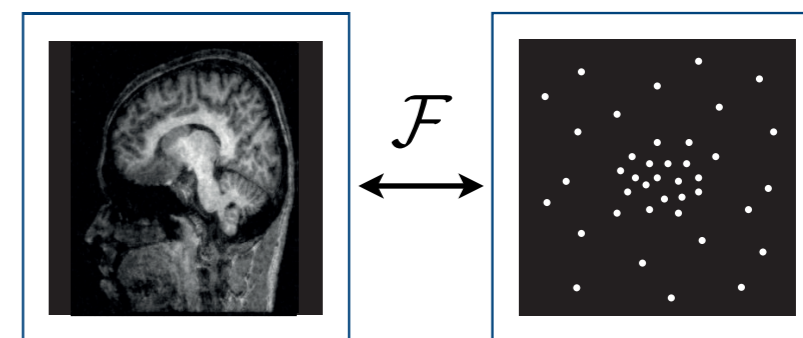
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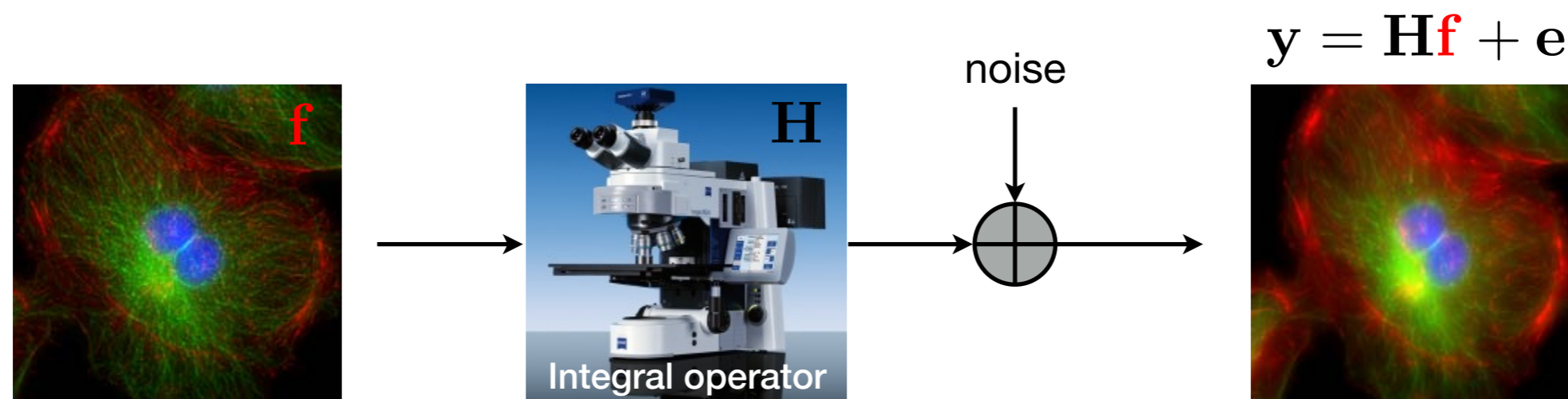
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Problem: recover \mathbf{f} from noisy measurements \mathbf{y}

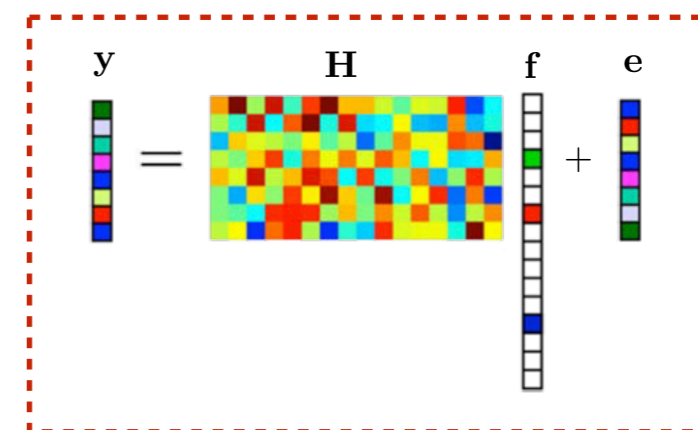
Question: Why can't we simply compute the inverse $\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{H}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$?

- 1) Difficult to invert the matrix as it is non-square or too large
- 2) Measurements do not uniquely describe the object
- 3) Noise amplification (related but not equal to 2)

Regularization framework enables the selection of the most suitable solution among alternatives

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Consider a noisy linear system with noise of bounded norm

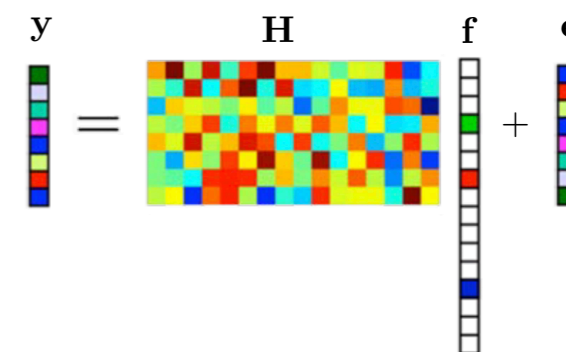


The diagram illustrates the equation $y = Hf + e$ within a dashed red border. On the left, a vertical vector y is shown with 10 colored segments (green, white, green, pink, yellow, blue, white, white, white, white). In the center, a matrix H is represented as a 10x10 grid of colored squares. To the right of H is a vertical vector f with 10 white segments, followed by a plus sign and a vertical vector e with 10 colored segments (blue, yellow, pink, green, white, white, white, white, white, white).

Regularization framework enables the selection of the most suitable solution among alternatives

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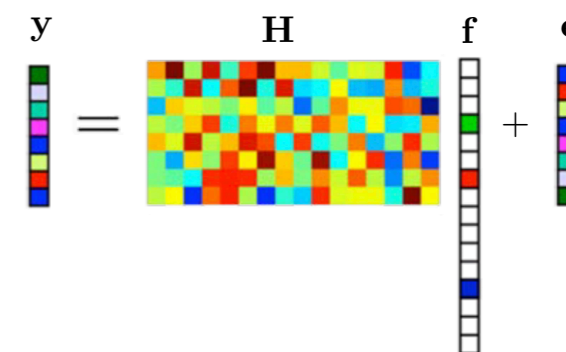
$$\boxed{\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{e}}$$
 such that $\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2 \leq \sigma^2$



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We consider a constrained optimization problem

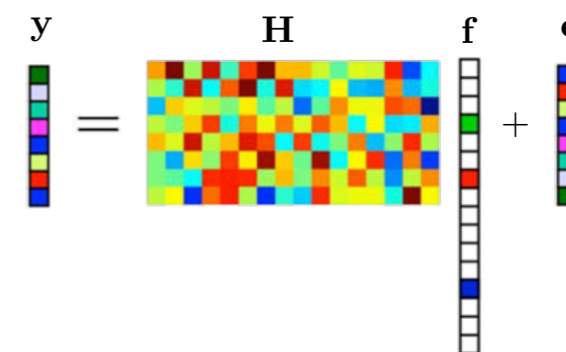
$$\text{minimize } \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \text{ subject to } \|\mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\ell_2}^2 \leq \sigma^2$$

- The “regularizer” picks the solution which we think is best
- Allows us to infuse prior knowledge into the problem

Regularization framework enables the selection of the most suitable solution among alternatives

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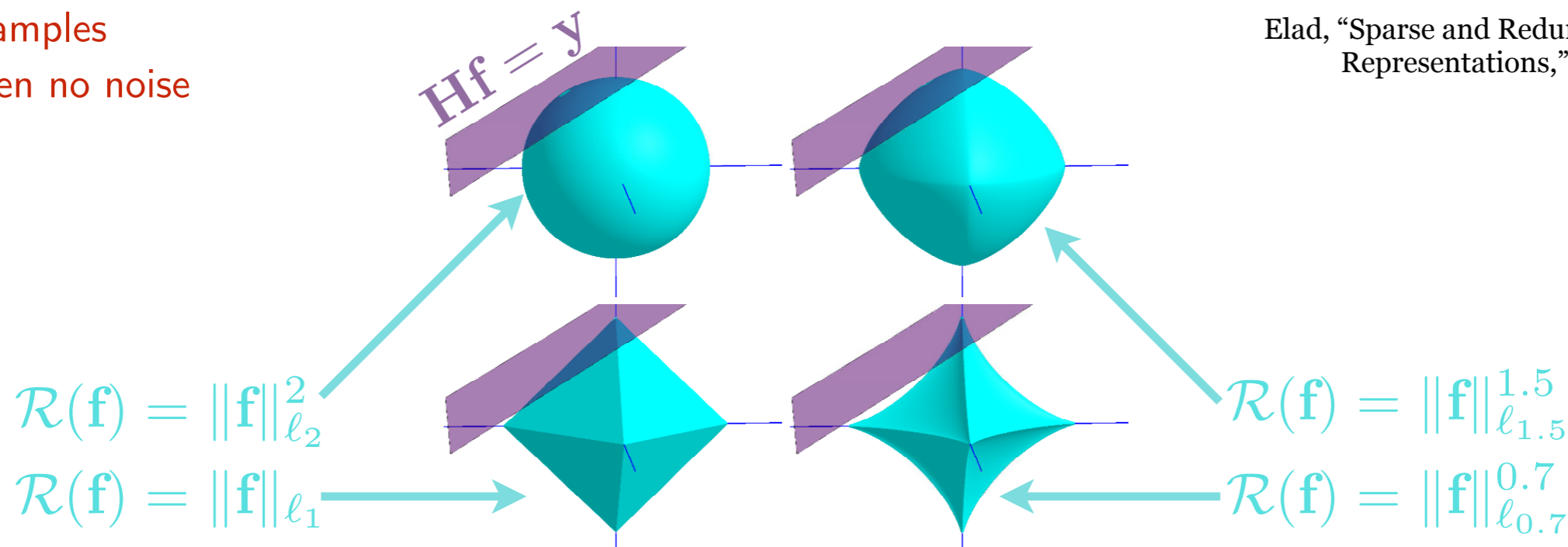
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$$\text{minimize } \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \text{ subject to } \|\mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\ell_2}^2 \leq \sigma^2$$

Examples
when no noise



Question: How to regularize in imaging?

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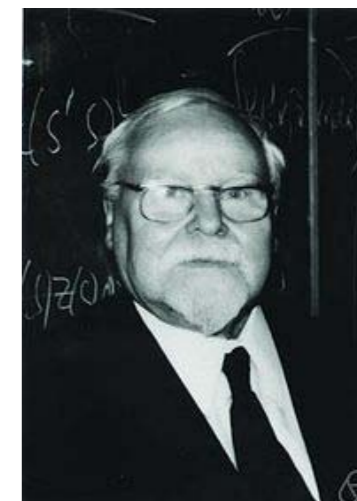
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Question: How to regularize in imaging?

Classical approach: Tikhonov regularization

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) = \|\mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2$$

Assumption:
image is smooth



Andrey N. Tikhonov (1906-1993)

$$\text{minimize } \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \text{ subject to } \|\mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\ell_2}^2 \leq \sigma^2$$

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$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) = \|\mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2$$

\Rightarrow

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}}_{\text{Tikh}} = (\mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{D})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T [\mathbf{H} (\mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{D})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T]^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

unique closed-form solution

minimize $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f})$ subject to $\|\mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\ell_2}^2 \leq \sigma^2$

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Assumption:

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Question: Is image smoothness a reasonable assumption?

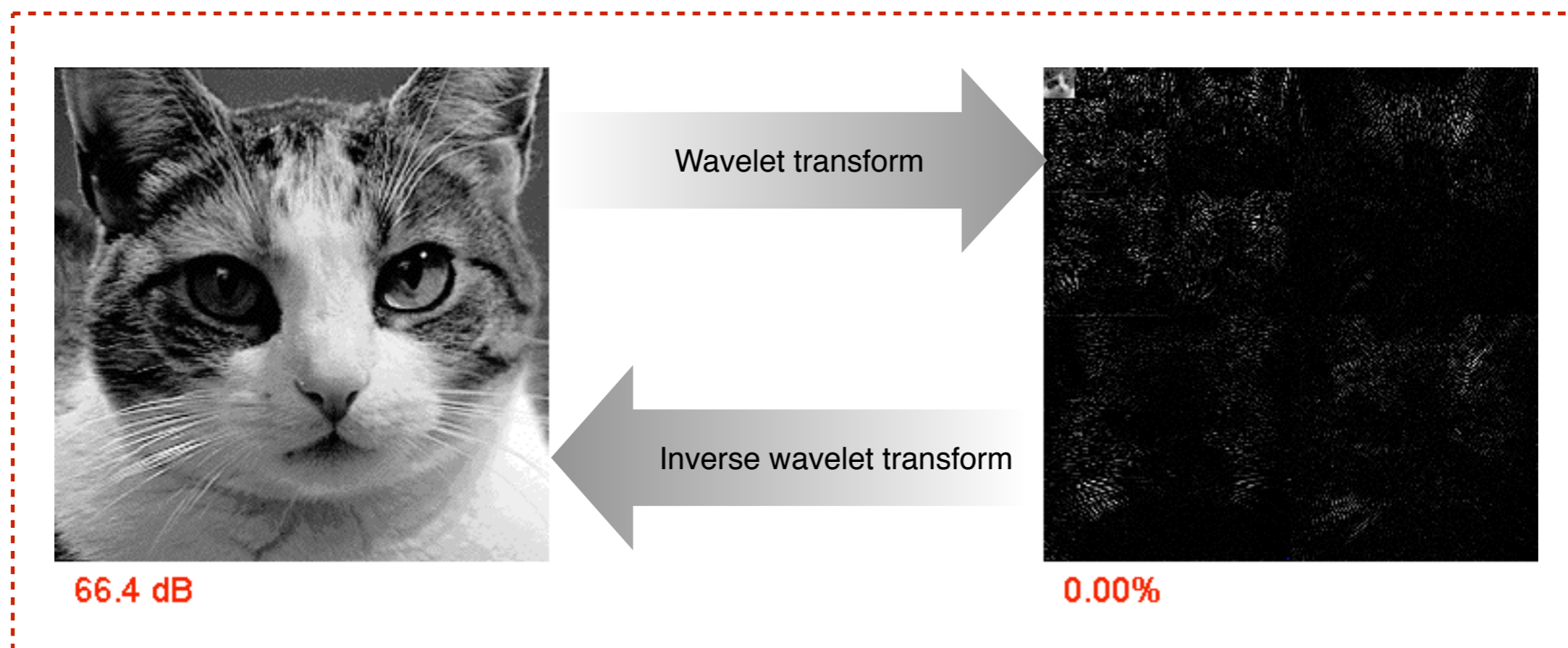
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Modern approach: Transform-domain sparsity



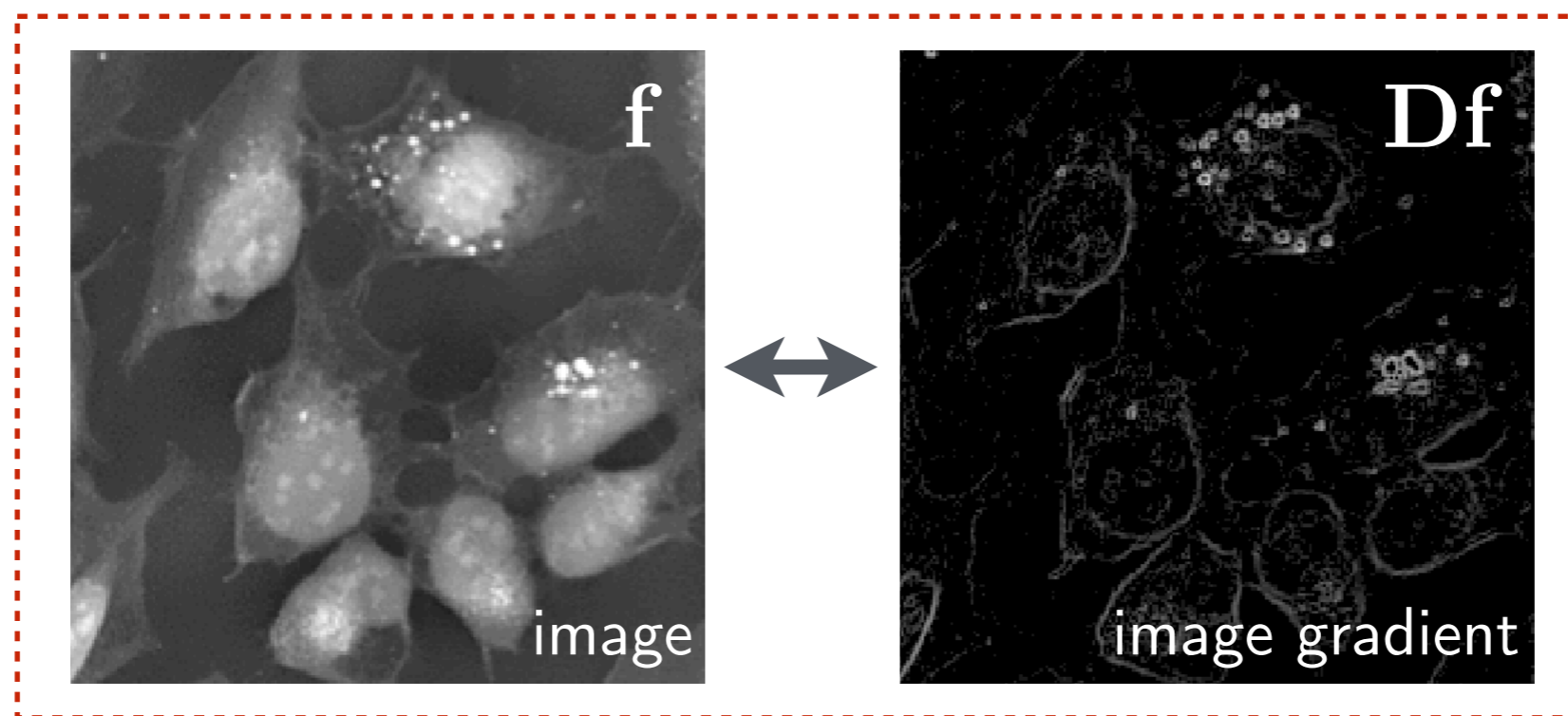
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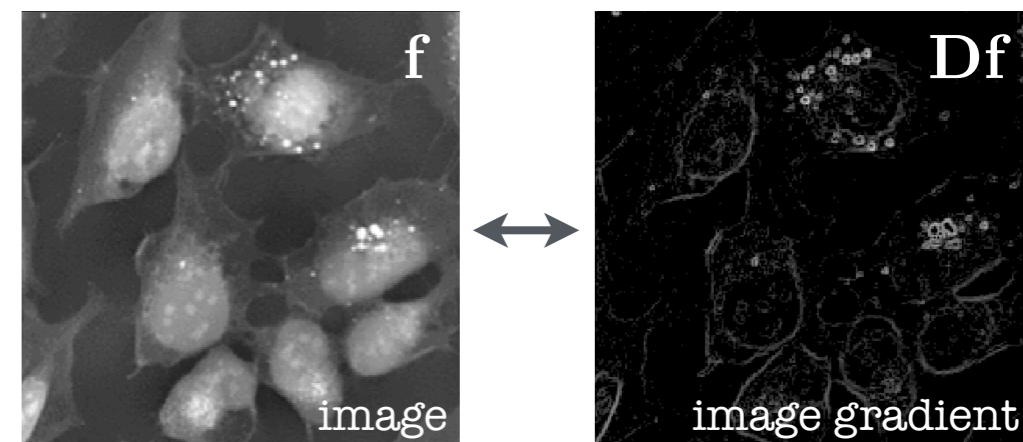
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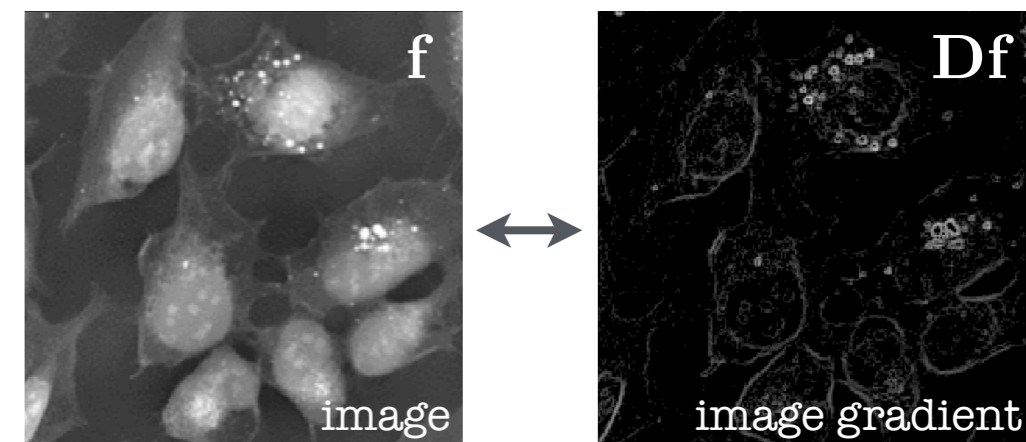
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Modern approach: Transform-domain sparsity

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) = \|\mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_0} = \#\{i : [\mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}]_i \neq 0\}$$

intractable nonconvex
optimiazation



Question: How to regularize in imaging?

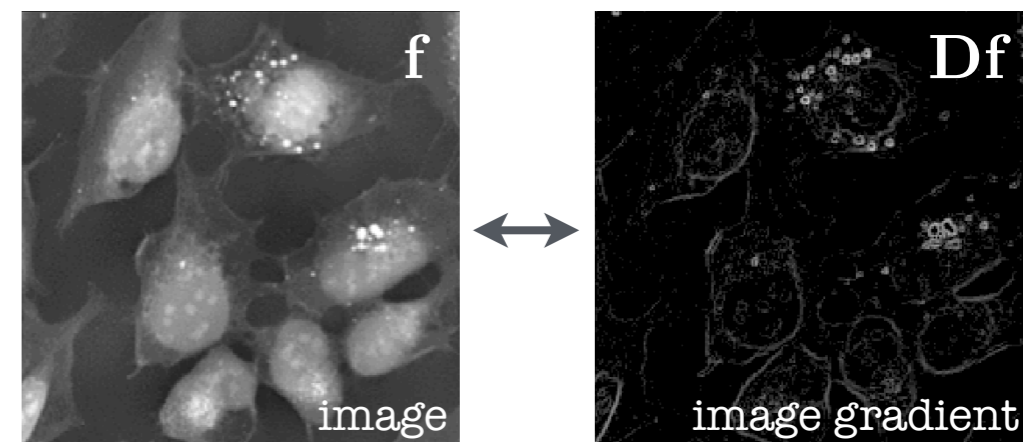
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Modern approach: Transform-domain sparsity

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) = \|\mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_1}$$

- convex (but nondifferentiable)
- promotes sparsity



To conclude “regularization”

Many imaging problems are ill-posed:
there are infinitely many solutions

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{e}$$

Regularization is a strategy to select the
solution that “makes sense”

$$\text{minimize } \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \text{ subject to } \|\mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\ell_2}^2 \leq \sigma^2$$

Classical image regularizers are linear,
but increasingly they are nonlinear

$$(20\text{th}) \quad \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) = \|\mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) = \|\mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_1} \quad (21\text{st})$$

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Proximal operator corresponds to image denoising

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A more convenient formulation

$$\min \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \text{ subject to } \|\mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\ell_2}^2 \leq \sigma^2$$

constrained optimization

\Leftrightarrow

$$\min_{\mathbf{f}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2 + \lambda \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \right\}$$

unconstrained optimization

Proximal operator corresponds to image denoising

A more convenient formulation

$$\min_{\mathbf{f}} \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \text{ subject to } \|\mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\ell_2}^2 \leq \sigma^2 \Leftrightarrow \min_{\mathbf{f}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2 + \lambda \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \right\}$$

Image denoising corresponds to identity measurement matrix

$$\min_{\mathbf{f}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2 + \lambda \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \right\}$$

Question: Can you comment on convexity?

Proximal operator corresponds to image denoising

A more convenient formulation

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Image denoising corresponds to
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$$\min_{\mathbf{f}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2 + \lambda \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \right\}$$

For a convex regularizer,
the objective is strongly convex
 \Rightarrow there is a unique minimizer

Proximal operator corresponds to image denoising

A more convenient formulation

$$\min_{\mathbf{f}} \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \text{ subject to } \|\mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\ell_2}^2 \leq \sigma^2 \Leftrightarrow \min_{\mathbf{f}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2 + \lambda \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \right\}$$

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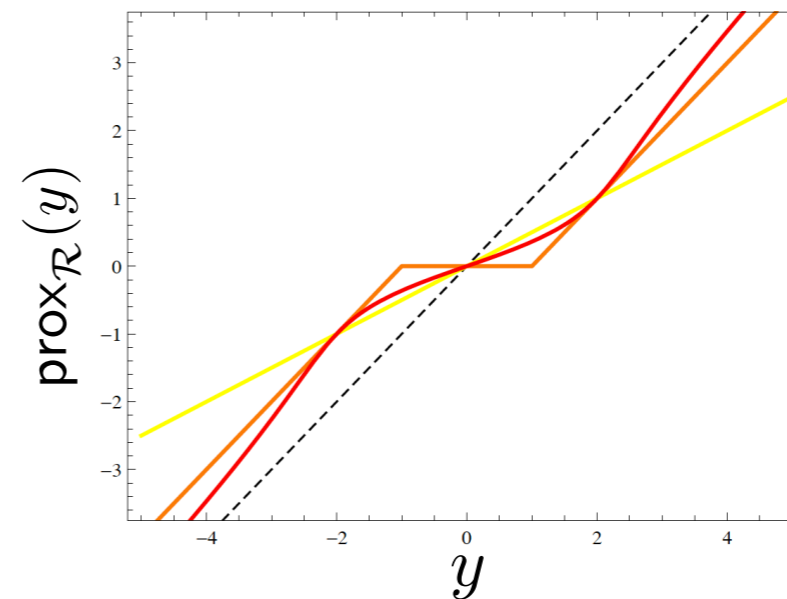
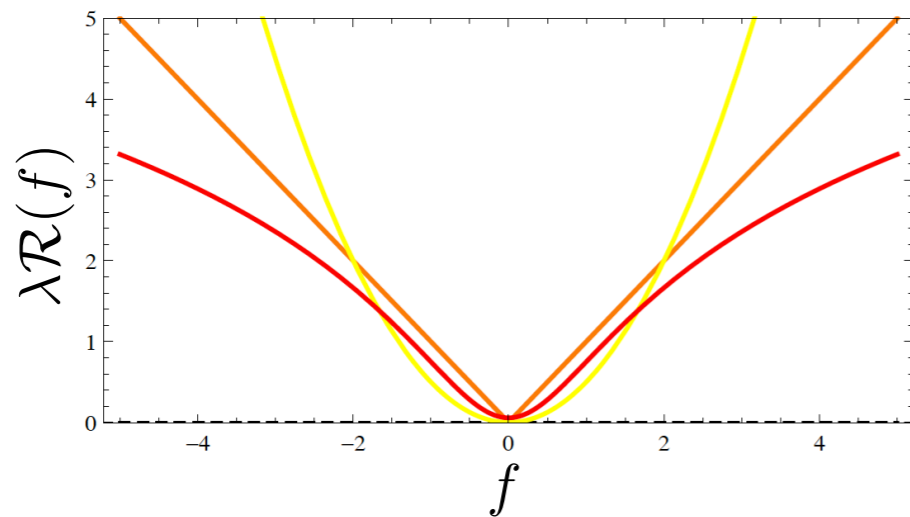
$$\min_{\mathbf{f}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2 + \lambda \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \right\}$$

We can thus define the prox operator that solves the denoising problem

$$\text{prox}_{\lambda \mathcal{R}}(\mathbf{y}) \triangleq \arg \min_{\mathbf{f}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2 + \lambda \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \right\}$$

Proximal operator corresponds to image denoising

Some examples of pointwise proximals



■ linear attenuation

■ soft-threshold

■ shrinkage function

ℓ_2 minimization

ℓ_1 minimization

$\approx \ell_p$ relaxation for $p \rightarrow 0$

**FISTA and ADMM are two popular algorithms
for large-scale and nonsmooth optimization**

FISTA and ADMM are two popular algorithms for large-scale and nonsmooth optimization

Consider the objective function

$$\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{f}) + \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{f}) \quad \text{where} \quad \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{f}) \triangleq \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\ell_2}^2$$

data fit + regularizer

FISTA and ADMM are two popular algorithms for large-scale and nonsmooth optimization

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Fast iterative shrinkage/thresholding algorithm (FISTA) vs. Alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{z}^k &\leftarrow \mathbf{s}^{k-1} - \gamma \nabla \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{s}^{k-1}) \\ \mathbf{f}^k &\leftarrow \text{prox}_{\gamma \mathcal{R}}(\mathbf{z}^k) \\ \mathbf{s}^k &\leftarrow \mathbf{f}^k + ((q_{k-1} - 1)/q_k)(\mathbf{f}^k - \mathbf{f}^{k-1}) \end{aligned}$$

ISTA: $q_k = 1 \Rightarrow O(1/t)$

FISTA: specific $q_k \Rightarrow O(1/t^2)$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{z}^k &\leftarrow \text{prox}_{\gamma \mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{f}^{k-1} - \mathbf{s}^{k-1}) \\ \mathbf{f}^k &\leftarrow \text{prox}_{\gamma \mathcal{R}}(\mathbf{z}^k + \mathbf{s}^{k-1}) \\ \mathbf{s}^k &\leftarrow \mathbf{s}^{k-1} + (\mathbf{z}^k - \mathbf{f}^k) \end{aligned}$$

ADMM fast practical convergence

FISTA and ADMM are two popular algorithms for large-scale and nonsmooth optimization

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$$\mathbf{s}^k \leftarrow \mathbf{f}^k + ((q_{k-1} - 1)/q_k)(\mathbf{f}^k - \mathbf{f}^{k-1})$$

$$\mathbf{z}^k \leftarrow \text{prox}_{\gamma \mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{f}^{k-1} - \mathbf{s}^{k-1})$$

$$\mathbf{f}^k \leftarrow \text{prox}_{\gamma \mathcal{R}}(\mathbf{z}^k + \mathbf{s}^{k-1})$$

$$\mathbf{s}^k \leftarrow \mathbf{s}^{k-1} + (\mathbf{z}^k - \mathbf{f}^k)$$

Question: Which one is computationally more efficient?

FISTA and ADMM are two popular algorithms for large-scale and nonsmooth optimization

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$$\mathbf{z}^k \leftarrow \text{prox}_{\gamma \mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{f}^{k-1} - \mathbf{s}^{k-1})$$

$$\mathbf{f}^k \leftarrow \text{prox}_{\gamma \mathcal{R}}(\mathbf{z}^k + \mathbf{s}^{k-1})$$

$$\mathbf{s}^k \leftarrow \mathbf{s}^{k-1} + (\mathbf{z}^k - \mathbf{f}^k)$$

Per-iteration complexity of ADMM is generally higher

$$\nabla \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{f}) = \mathbf{H}^\top (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{y})$$

$$\text{prox}_{\gamma \mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{f}) = [\mathbf{I} + \gamma \mathbf{H}^\top \mathbf{H}]^{-1} (\mathbf{f} + \gamma \mathbf{H}^\top \mathbf{y})$$

requires matrix inversion

To conclude “optimization”

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$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{e}$$

Regularization is a strategy to select the
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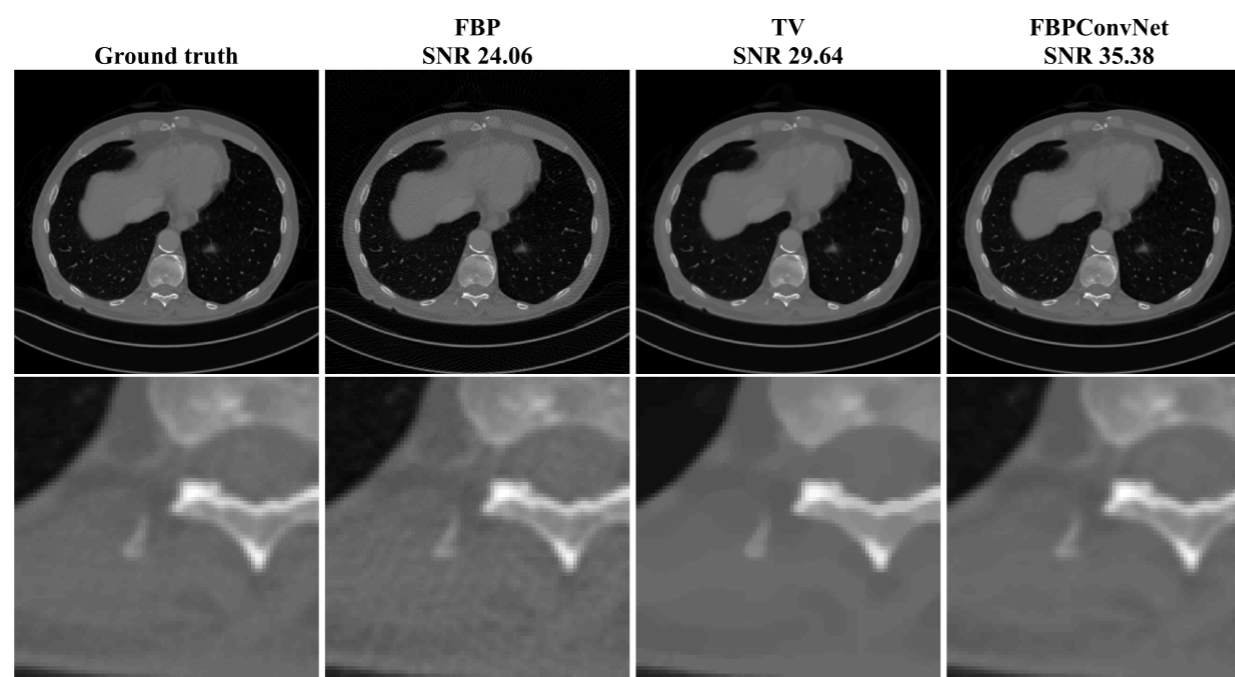
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Deep learning is currently getting the best performance for image reconstruction

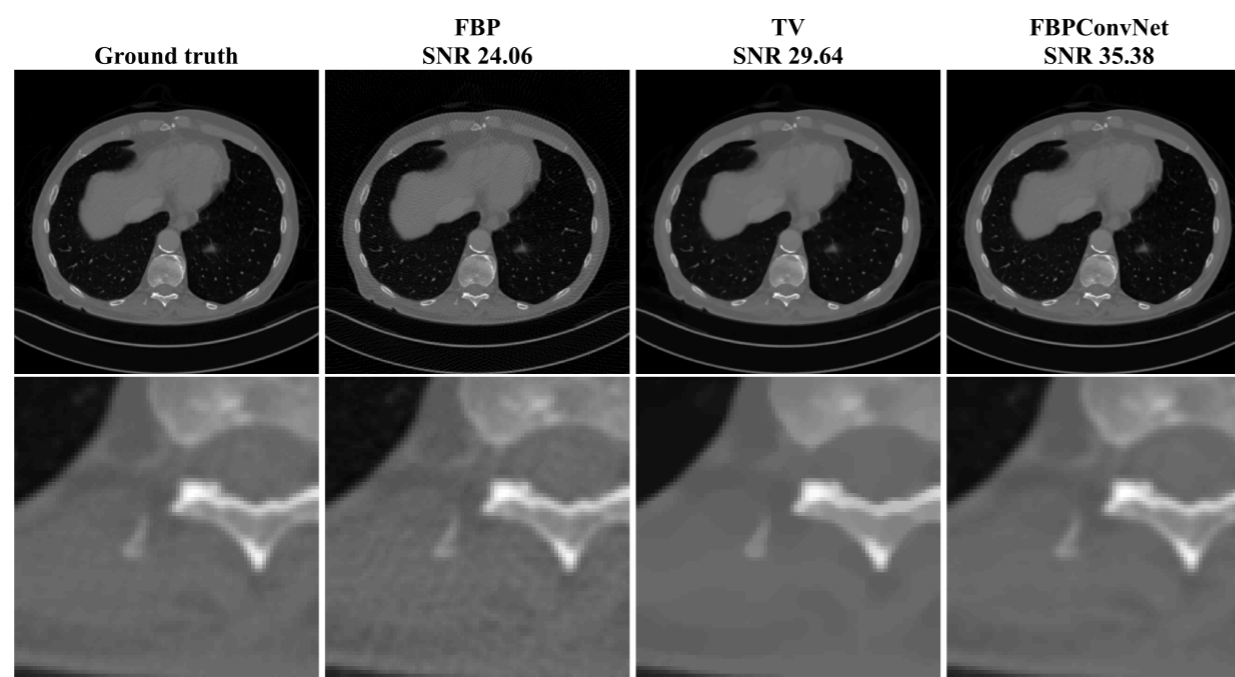
Deep learning is currently getting the best performance for image reconstruction



X-Ray CT

Jin *et al.*, 2016

Deep learning is currently getting the best performance for image reconstruction

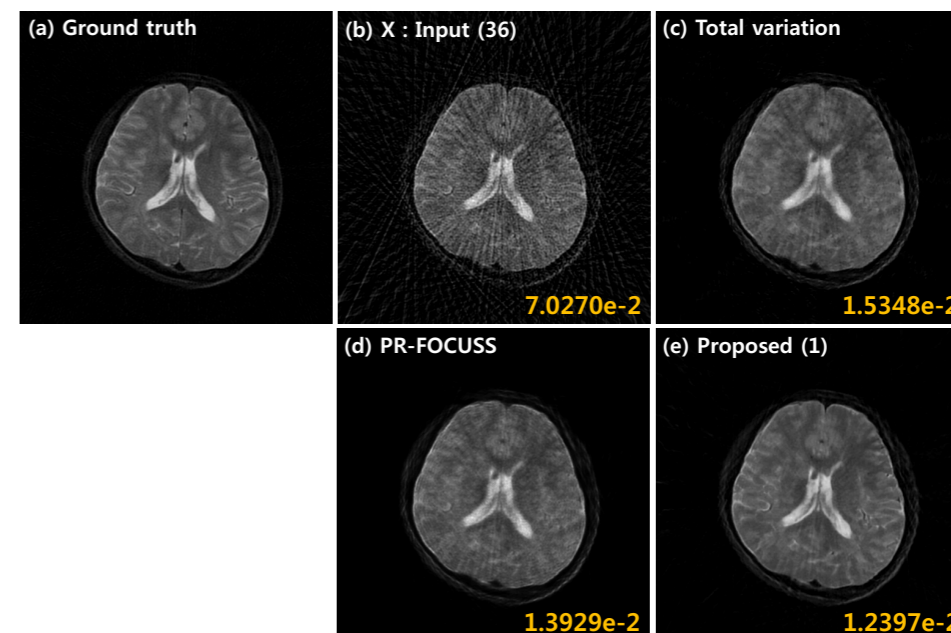


X-Ray CT

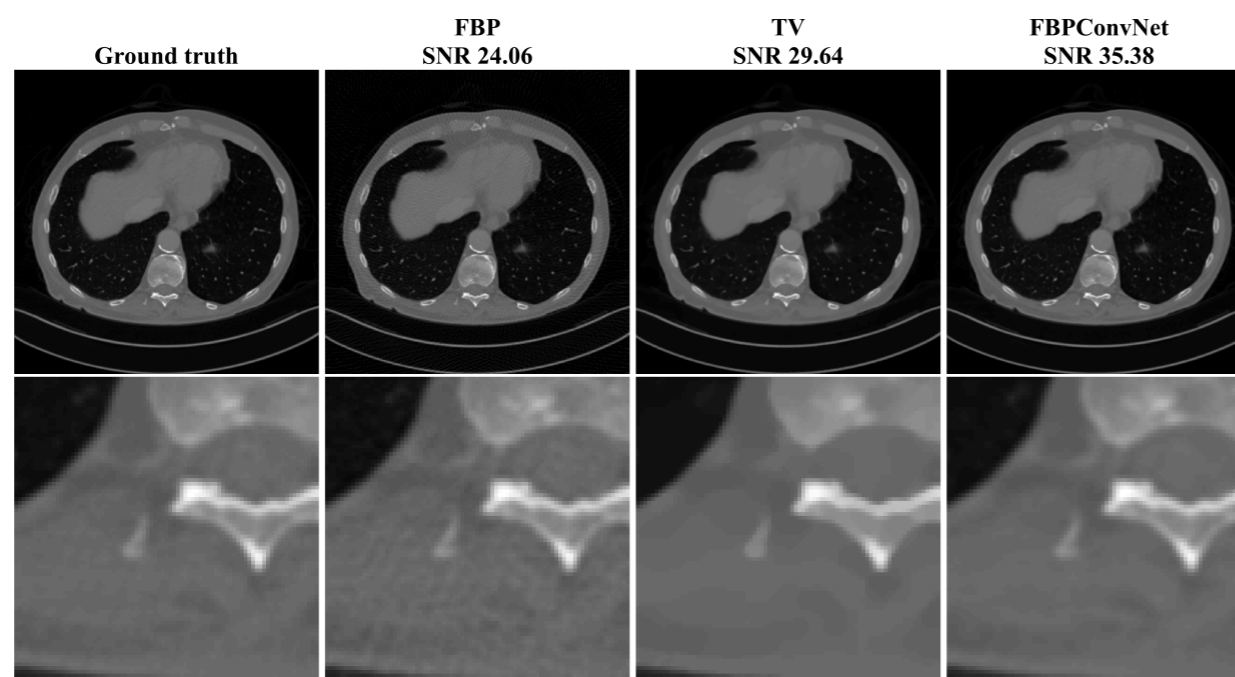
Jin *et al.*, 2016

MRI

Han *et al.*, 2017

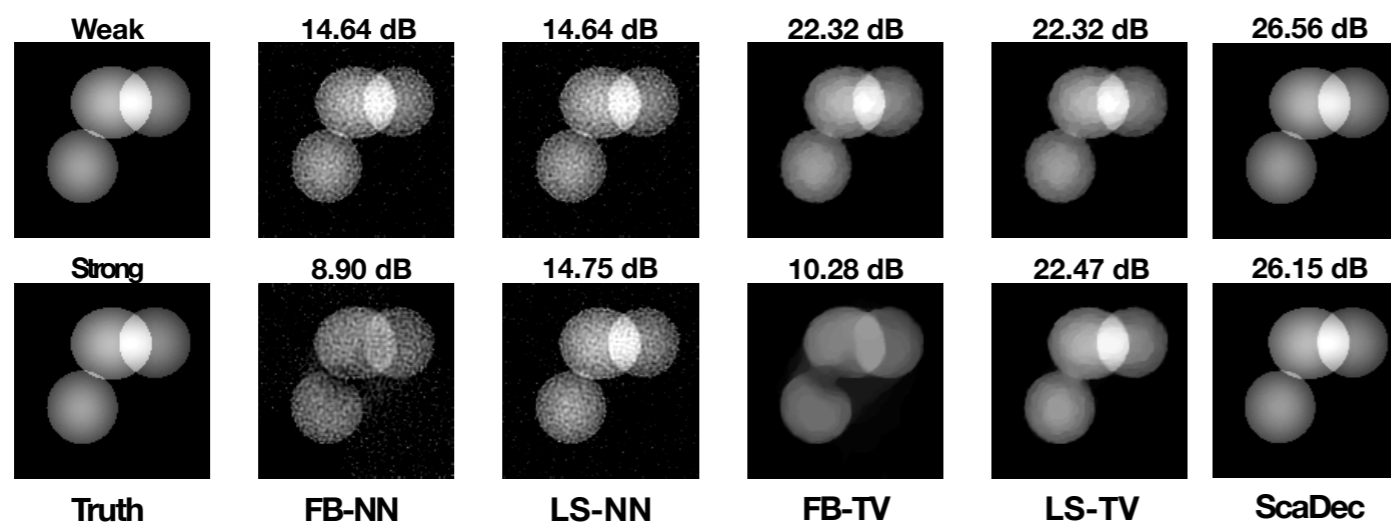
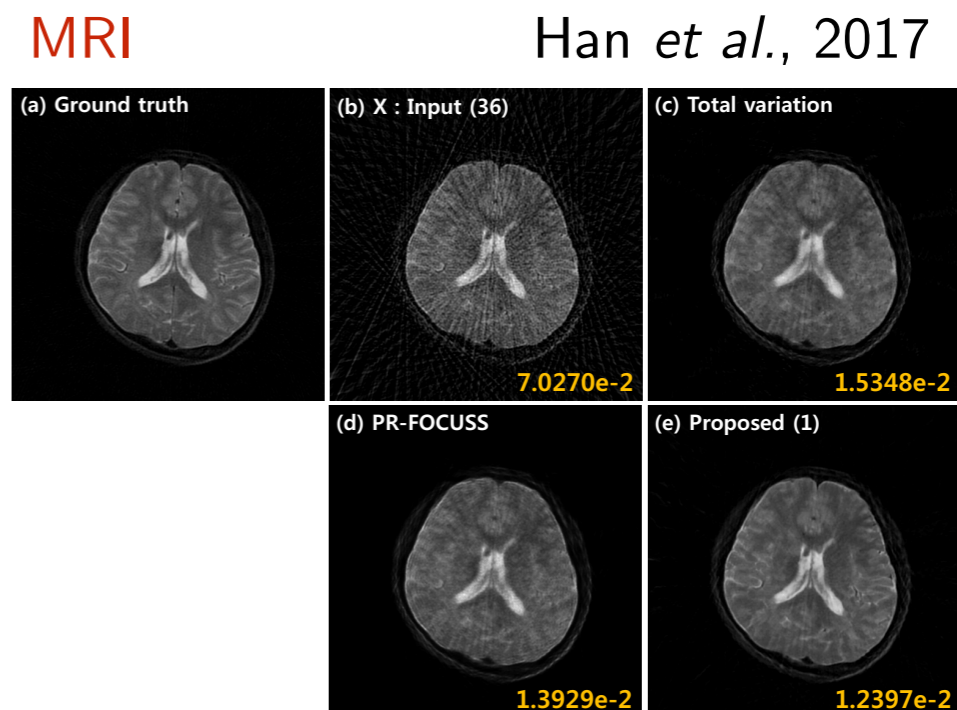


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X-Ray CT

Jin *et al.*, 2016



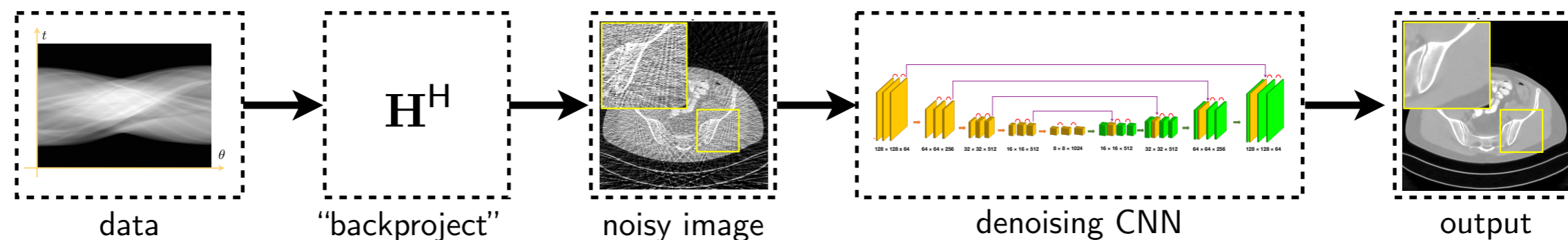
Diffraction Tomography

Sun *et al.*, 2018

**A well established deep learning pipeline:
first backproject then denoise with a ConvNet**

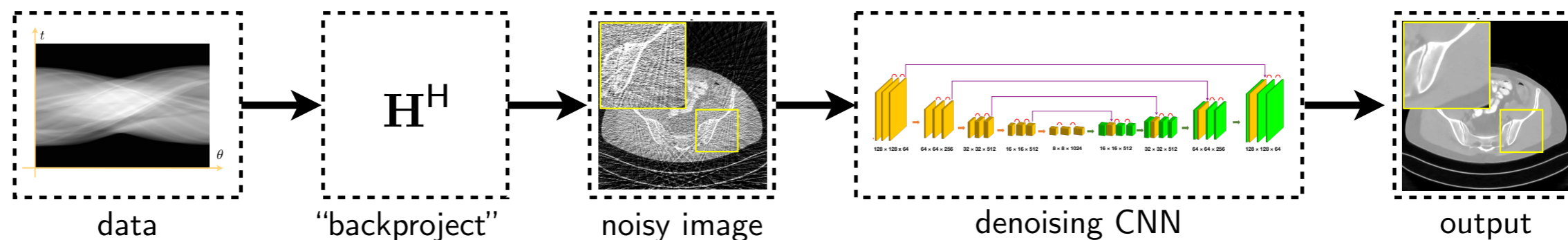
A well established deep learning pipeline: first backproject then denoise with a ConvNet

Data processing pipeline



A well established deep learning pipeline: first backproject then denoise with a ConvNet

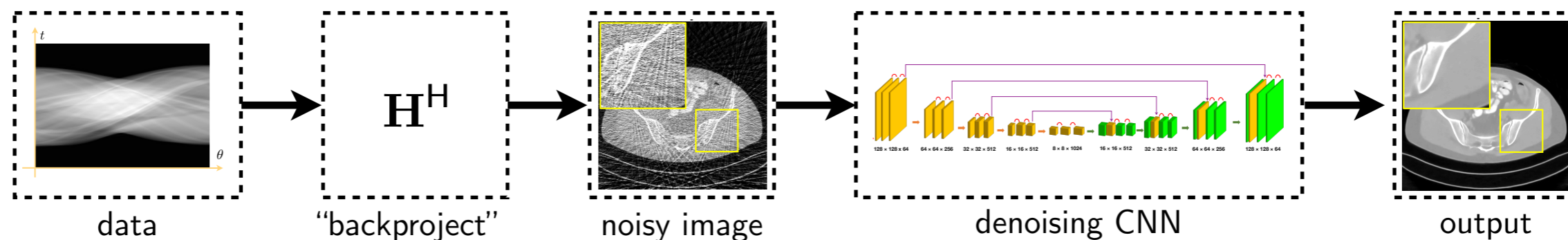
Data processing pipeline



Question: What are some of the key limitations of this approach?

A well established deep learning pipeline: first backproject then denoise with a ConvNet

Data processing pipeline

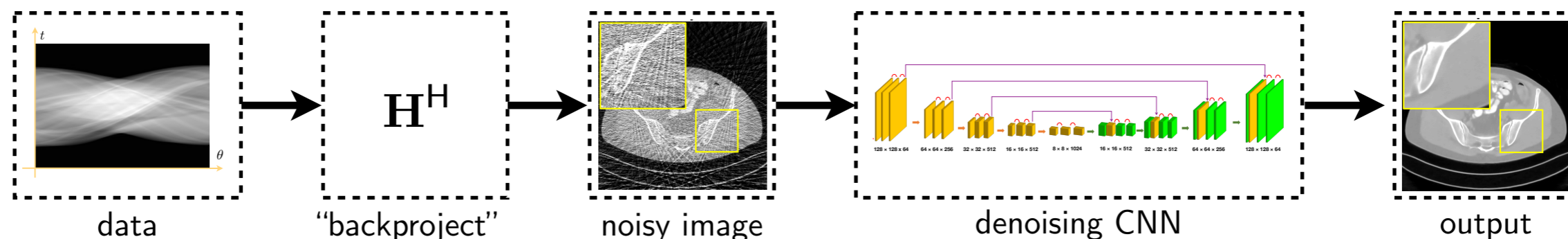


1) Implicit dependance of CNN on the forward model

Hard to decouple the individual contributions of D and R

A well established deep learning pipeline: first backproject then denoise with a ConvNet

Data processing pipeline



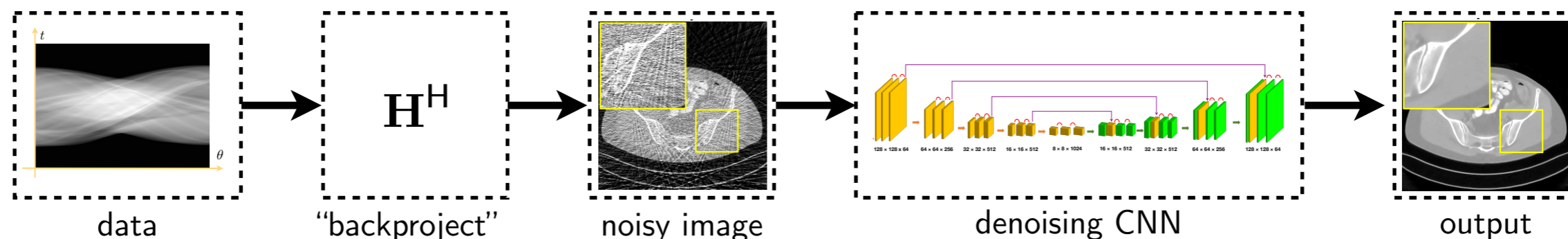
1) Implicit dependance of CNN on the forward model

2) Consistency with the measured data is unclear

No explicit measure of the deviation from the data

A well established deep learning pipeline: first backproject then denoise with a ConvNet

Data processing pipeline

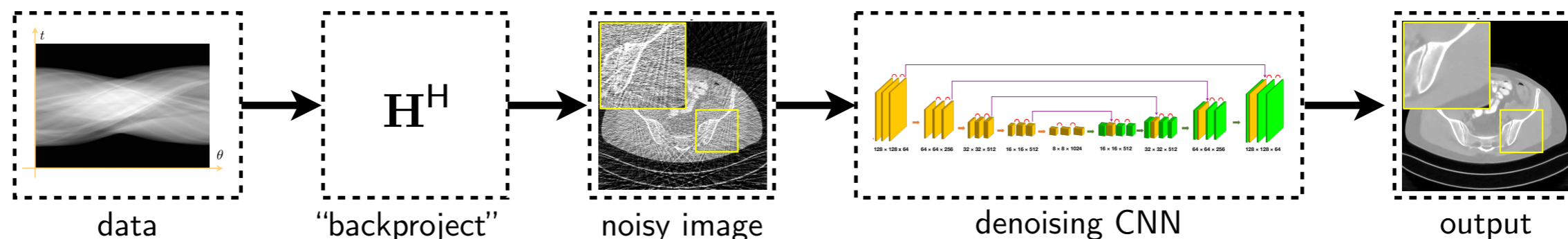


- 1) Implicit dependance of CNN on the forward model
- 2) Consistency with the measured data is unclear
- 3) Difficult to impose nontrivial hard constraints on the image

Example: We absolutely need the image gradient to be smaller than epsilon

A well established deep learning pipeline: first backproject then denoise with a ConvNet

Data processing pipeline

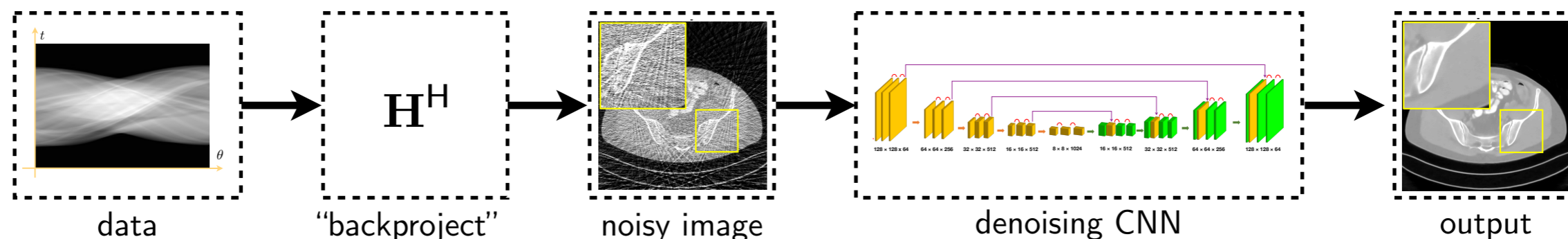


- 1) Implicit dependance of CNN on the forward model
- 2) Consistency with the measured data is unclear
- 3) Difficult to impose nontrivial hard constraints on the image
- 4) Not principled: how to select the right architecture?

Variations in the problem are not explicitly linked to model parameters

A well established deep learning pipeline: first backproject then denoise with a ConvNet

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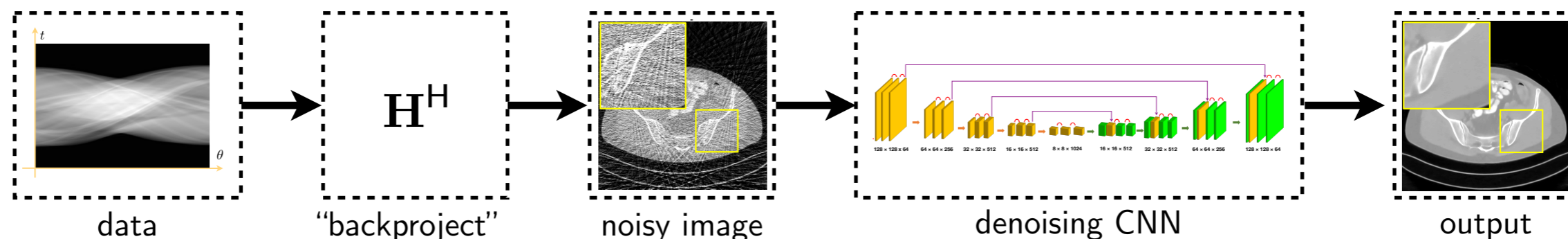


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- 4) Not principled: how to select the right architecture?
- 5) Difficult to generalize to nonlinear forward models

What happens if there is no backprojection?

A well established deep learning pipeline: first backproject then denoise with a ConvNet

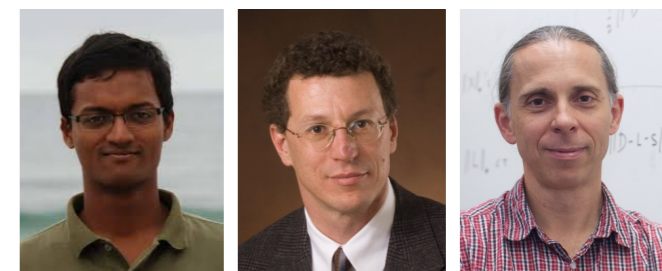
Data processing pipeline



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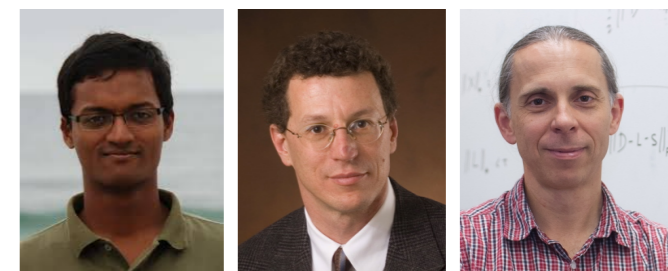
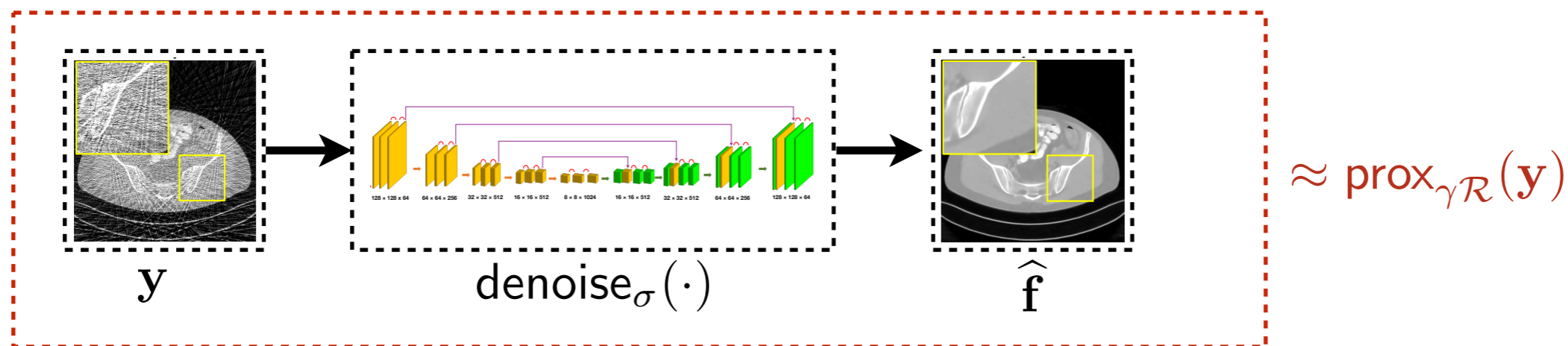
**Treating the denoising CNN as a proximal operator
allows to separate the prior from the forward model**

Treating the denoising CNN as a proximal operator allows to separate the prior from the forward model



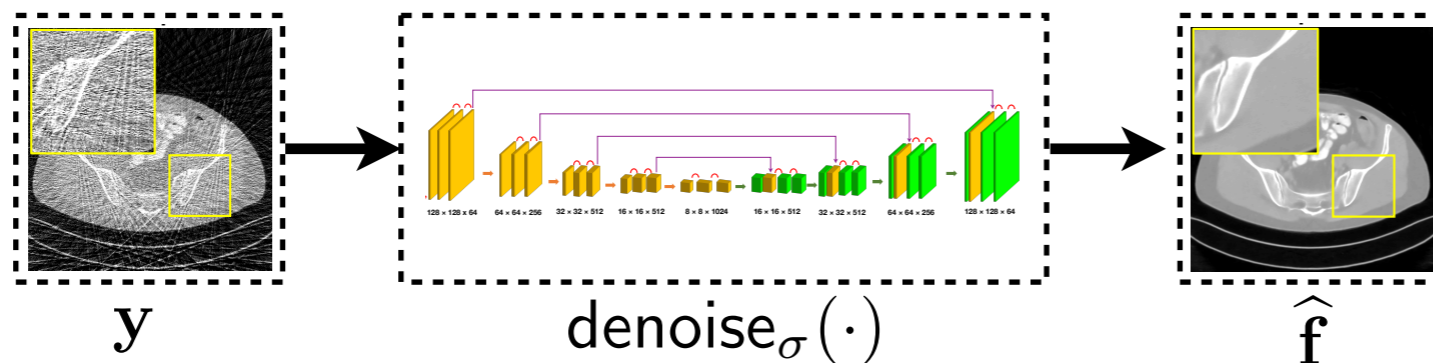
Treating the denoising CNN as a proximal operator allows to separate the prior from the forward model

Train a CNN to denoise for various noise levels



Treating the denoising CNN as a proximal operator allows to separate the prior from the forward model

Train a CNN to denoise for various noise levels



Use the trained CNN as a Plug-and-Play Prior (PnP)

$$\mathbf{z}^k \leftarrow \mathbf{s}^{k-1} - \gamma \nabla \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{s}^{k-1})$$

$$\mathbf{f}^k \leftarrow \text{denoise}_\sigma(\mathbf{z}^k)$$

$$\mathbf{s}^k \leftarrow \mathbf{f}^k + ((q_{k-1} - 1)/q_k)(\mathbf{f}^k - \mathbf{f}^{k-1})$$

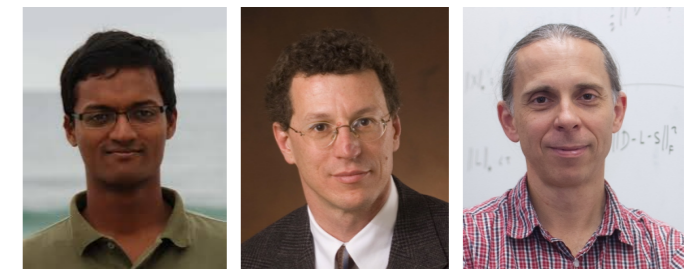
PnP-FISTA

$$\mathbf{z}^k \leftarrow \text{prox}_{\gamma \mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{f}^{k-1} - \mathbf{s}^{k-1})$$

$$\mathbf{f}^k \leftarrow \text{denoise}_\sigma(\mathbf{z}^k + \mathbf{s}^{k-1})$$

$$\mathbf{s}^k \leftarrow \mathbf{s}^{k-1} + (\mathbf{z}^k - \mathbf{f}^k)$$

PnP-ADMM



Plug-and-Play Priors (PnP) approach has been shown to yield state-of-the-art results

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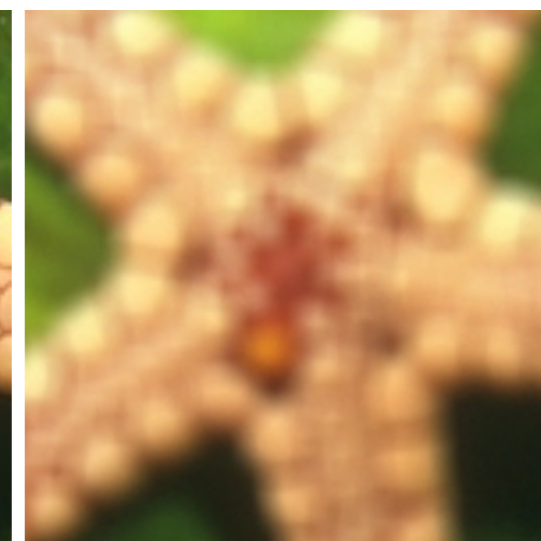
Method	Average PSNR (dB) over 10 images
TV	29.22
IDD-BM3D	30.92
ASDS-Reg	30.11
NCSR	31.09
PnP	31.33

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Method	Average PSNR (dB) over 10 images
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(a) Ground Truth



(b) Input 20.83dB



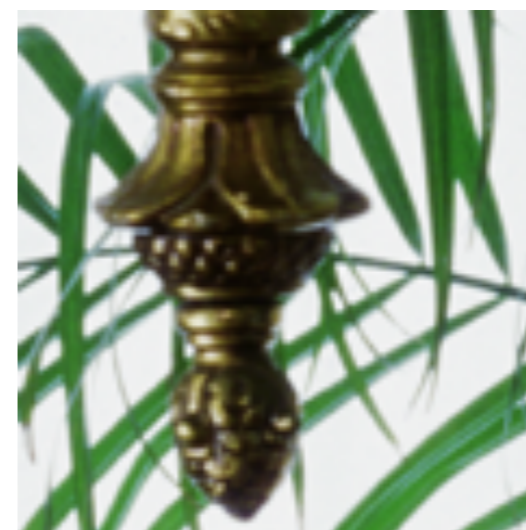
(d) NCSR 28.39dB



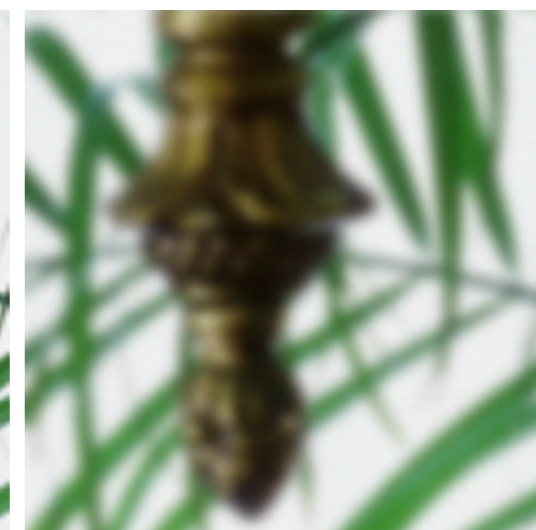
(e) P^3 -TNRD 28.43dB

Plug-and-Play Priors (PnP) approach has been shown to yield state-of-the-art results

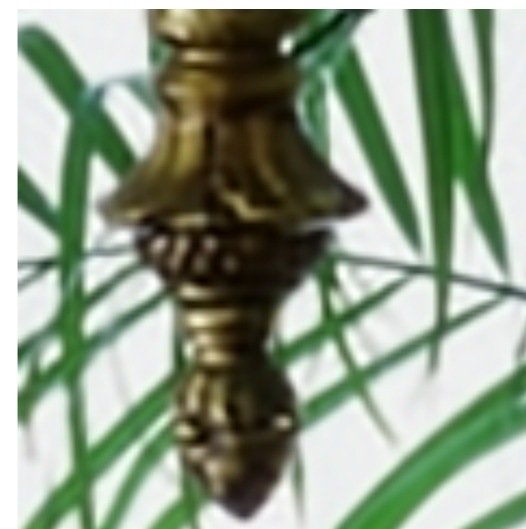
Method	Average PSNR (dB) over 10 images
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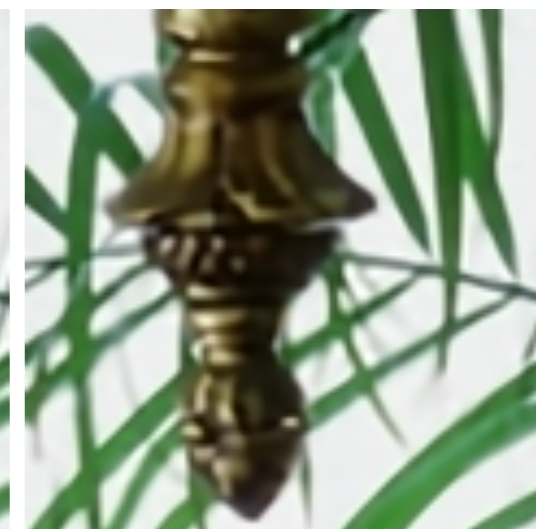
(a) Ground Truth



(b) Input 21.40dB



(d) NCSR 30.03dB



(e) P^3 -TNRD 30.36dB

Can we say anything about convergence?

Can we say anything about convergence?

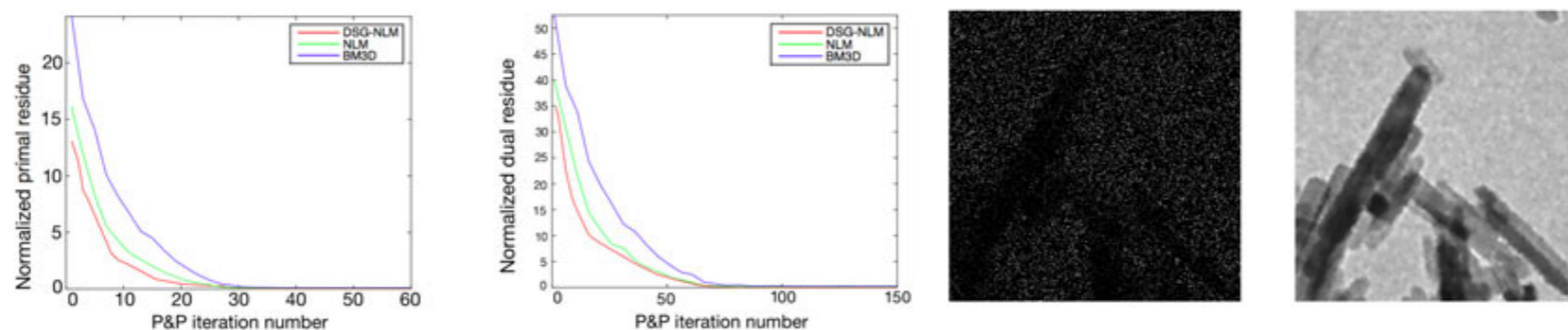
Can we say anything about convergence?

Result #1: When $\mathcal{D}(\cdot)$ is convex and $\nabla \text{denoise}_\sigma(\cdot)$ is a symmetric matrix with eigenvalues in $[0, 1]$, then $\text{denoise}_\sigma(\cdot)$ is a proximal operator.

Result #2: When both $\nabla \mathcal{D}(\cdot)$ and $\text{denoise}_\sigma(\cdot)$ are bounded operators, PnP-ADMM with damping converges to a fixed point.

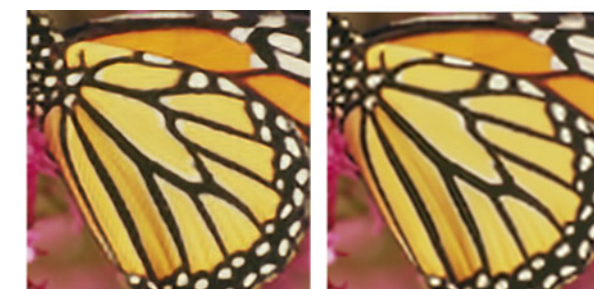
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DCNN [9]	20.72	21.30	18.91	21.68	16.10	23.39	22.33	22.99	22.46	20.23	21.01
SR [12]	20.67	21.30	18.86	21.51	16.37	23.15	22.19	22.85	22.26	20.33	20.95
SPSR [10]	20.85	21.58	19.18	21.85	16.59	23.52	22.42	23.05	22.53	20.50	21.21
TSE [52]	20.59	21.24	18.80	21.49	16.40	23.14	22.21	22.78	22.21	20.30	20.92
GPR [11]	21.55	22.68	19.90	22.77	17.70	24.57	23.51	24.37	23.63	21.35	22.20
Ours - M	23.62	25.75	23.06	25.30	24.48	27.17	29.14	29.42	26.86	26.86	26.17



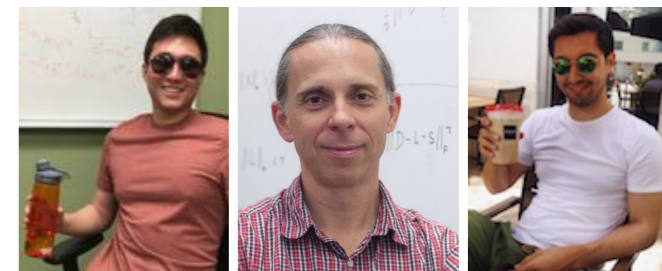
DCNN

PnP-ADMM

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Sun, Wohlberg, Kamilov, “An Online Plug-and-Play Algorithm for Regularized Image Reconstruction,” 2018



Can we say anything about convergence?

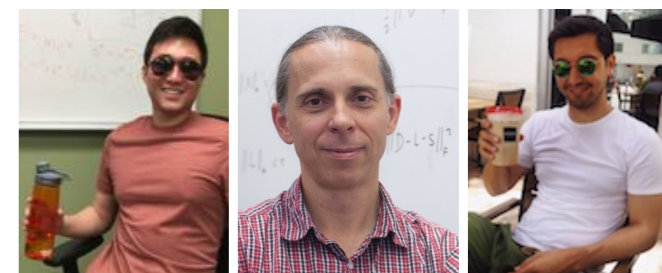
Useful definitions

$$P(\mathbf{f}) \triangleq \text{denoise}_{\sigma}(\mathbf{f} - \gamma \nabla \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{f}))$$

gradient-denoiser operator

$$\text{fix}(P) \triangleq \{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{f} = P(\mathbf{f})\}$$

its of fixed points



Can we say anything about convergence?

Useful definitions

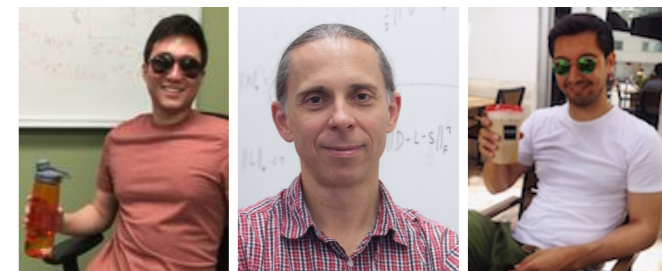
$$P(\mathbf{f}) \triangleq \text{denoise}_\sigma(\mathbf{f} - \gamma \nabla \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{f})) \quad \text{fix}(P) \triangleq \{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{f} = P(\mathbf{f})\}$$

#1: Let $\text{denoise}_\sigma(\cdot) = \text{prox}_{\gamma \mathcal{R}}(\cdot)$. Then, $\mathbf{f}^* \in \text{fix}(P)$ iff it minimizes $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{D} + \mathcal{R}$

#2: Run PnP-ISTA with a nonexpansive denoiser for $t \geq 1$ iterations. Then

$$\min_{k \in \{1, \dots, t\}} \left\{ \|\mathbf{f}^{k-1} - P(\mathbf{f}^{k-1})\|_{\ell_2}^2 \right\} = O(1/t)$$

#3: For nonexpansive denoisers, fixed points of PnP-ADMM coincide with $\text{fix}(P)$



PnP-SGD is an online extension useful when dealing with a large number of measurements

PnP-SGD is an online extension useful when dealing with a large number of measurements

Consider the following data-fidelity term

$$\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{f}) = \frac{1}{2I} \sum_{i=1}^I \|\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{H}_i \mathbf{f}\|_{\ell_2}^2$$

\Rightarrow

$$\nabla \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{f}) = \frac{1}{I} \sum_{i=1}^I \mathbf{H}_i^T (\mathbf{H}_i \mathbf{f} - \mathbf{y}_i)$$

cost of computing the gradient is
linear in the number of measurements

PnP-SGD is an online extension useful when dealing with a large number of measurements

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PnP-SGD can accelerate imaging by parallelizing the processing of each data item

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\nabla} \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{s}^{k-1}) &\leftarrow \text{minibatchGradient}(\mathbf{s}^{k-1}, B) \\ \mathbf{z}^k &\leftarrow \mathbf{s}^{k-1} - \gamma \hat{\nabla} \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{s}^{k-1}) \\ \mathbf{f}^k &\leftarrow \text{denoise}_\sigma(\mathbf{z}^k) \\ \mathbf{s}^k &\leftarrow \mathbf{f}^k + ((q_{k-1} - 1)/q_k)(\mathbf{f}^k - \mathbf{f}^{k-1}) \end{aligned}$$

use only B measurements per iteration instead of I

PnP-SGD is an online extension useful when dealing with a large number of measurements

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PnP-SGD converges to the same set of fixed points as batch PnP algorithms

PnP-SGD converges to the same set of fixed points as batch PnP algorithms

#4: Run PnP-SGD for $t \geq 1$ iterations under some mild assumptions. Then

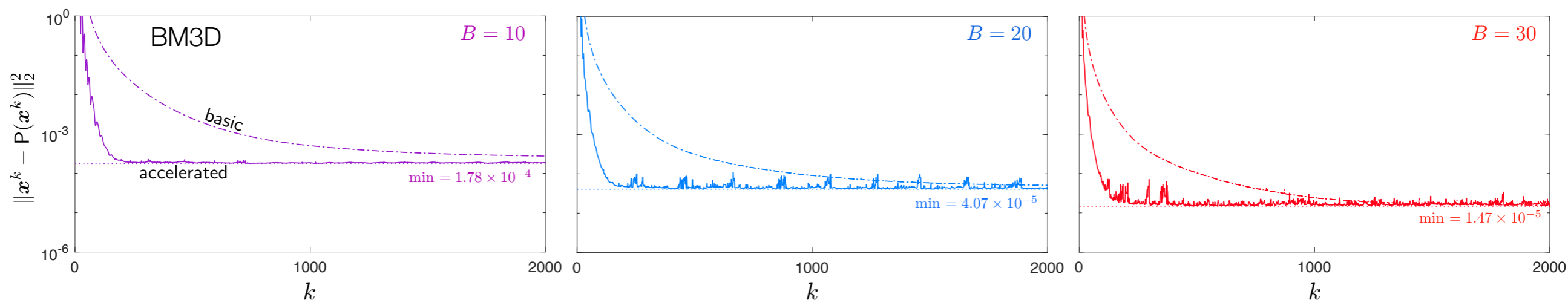
$$\mathbb{E} \left[\min_{k \in \{1, \dots, t\}} \left\{ \|\mathbf{f}^{k-1} - \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{f}^{k-1})\|_{\ell_2}^2 \right\} \right] \leq C \left[\frac{\gamma^2 \nu^2}{B} + \frac{2\gamma\nu}{\sqrt{B}} \|\mathbf{f}^0 - \mathbf{f}^*\|_{\ell_2} + \frac{\|\mathbf{f}^0 - \mathbf{f}^*\|_{\ell_2}^2}{t} \right]$$

Convergence in expectation. C is a constant. Note the case when $B = t$

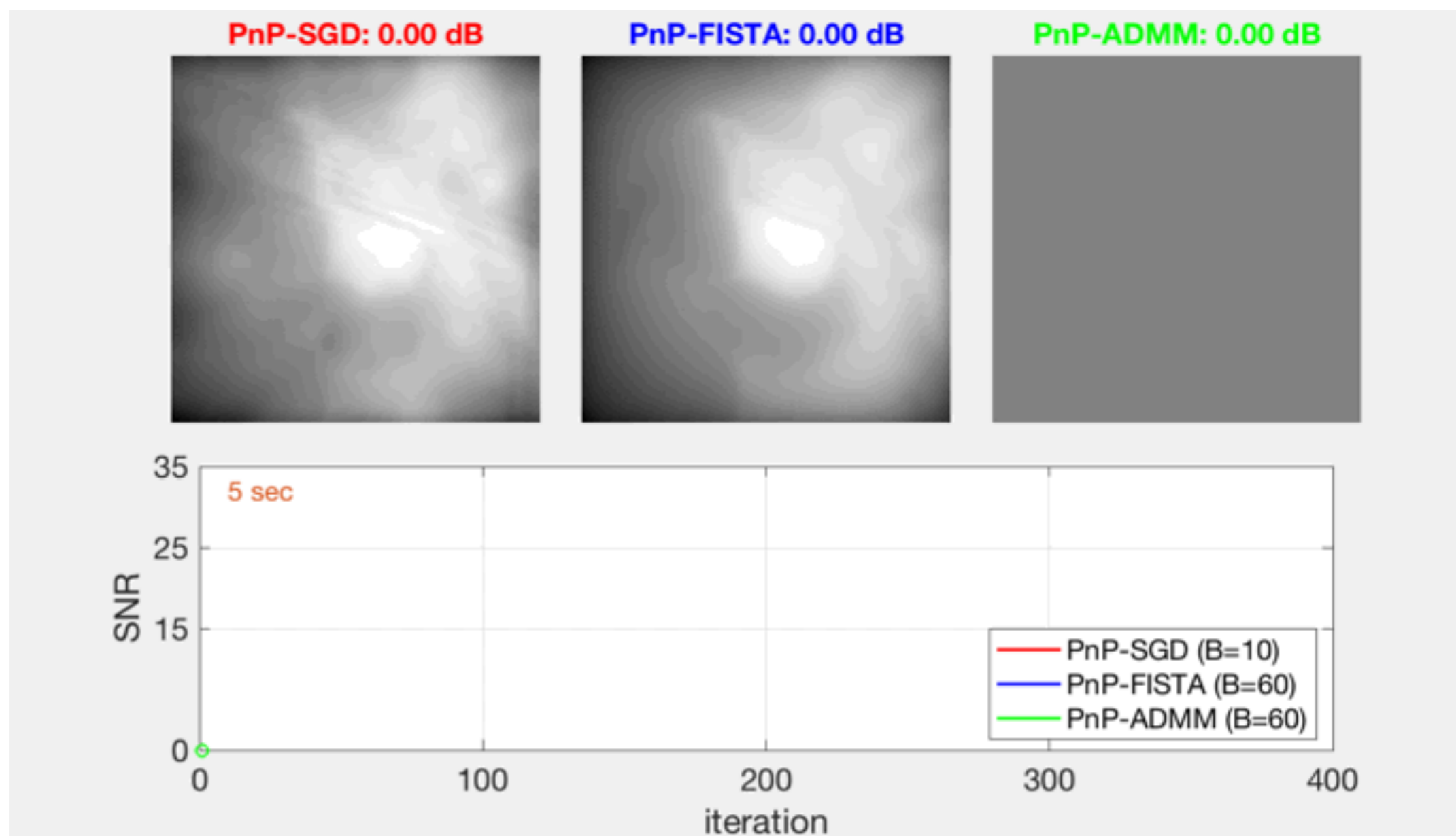
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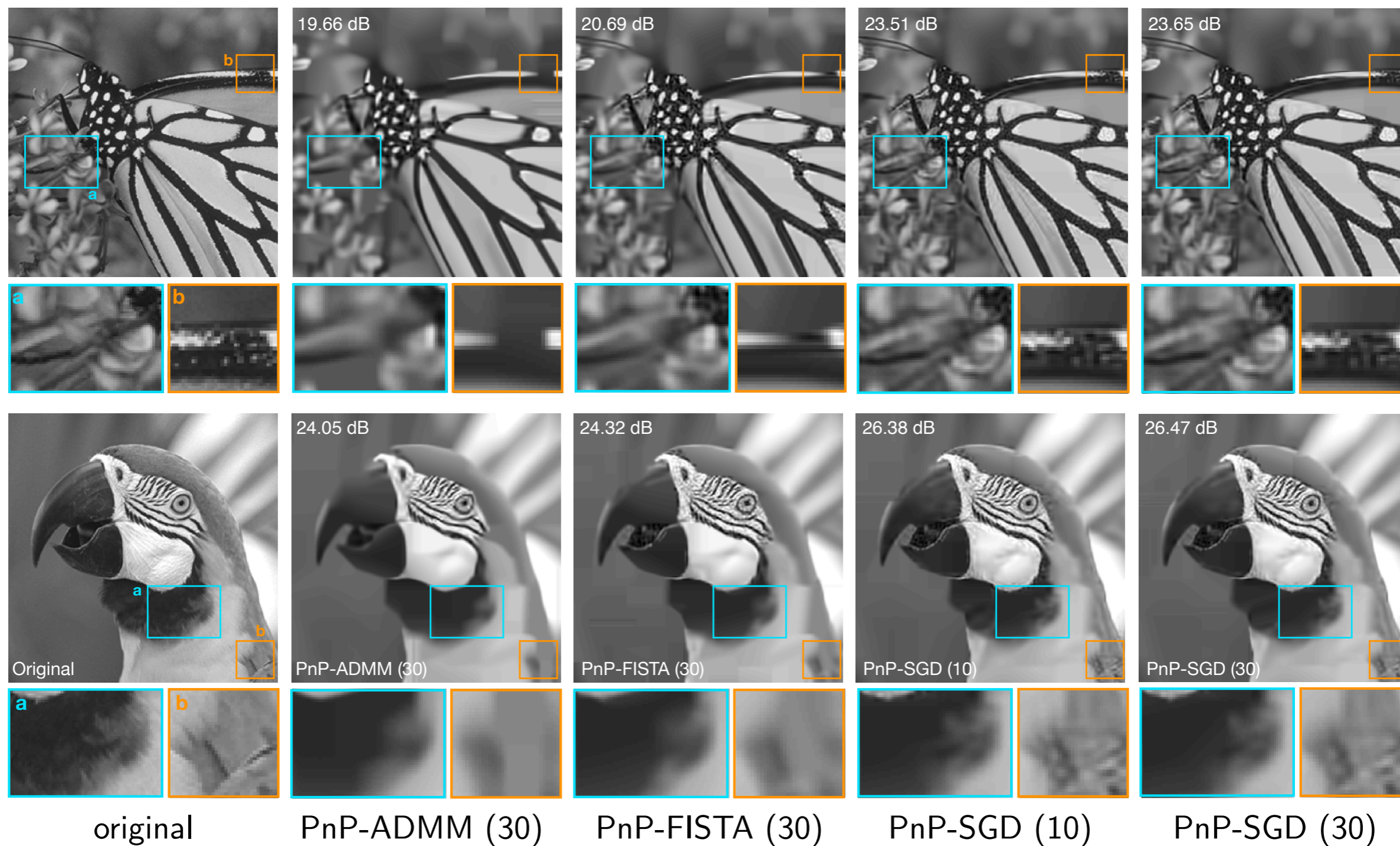
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For many measurements PnP-SGD converges faster than batch algorithms



For the same measurement budget, PnP-SGD gets much higher quality results



Conclusion

Image reconstruction is a fascinating research area that brings together physics, signal processing, nonlinear optimization, and machine learning

We are increasingly reliant on implicit regularization using nonlinear operators, such as deep neural networks or nonlinear filters

Plug-In SGD is a theoretically sound algorithm that can regularize at large-scales using nonlinear operators

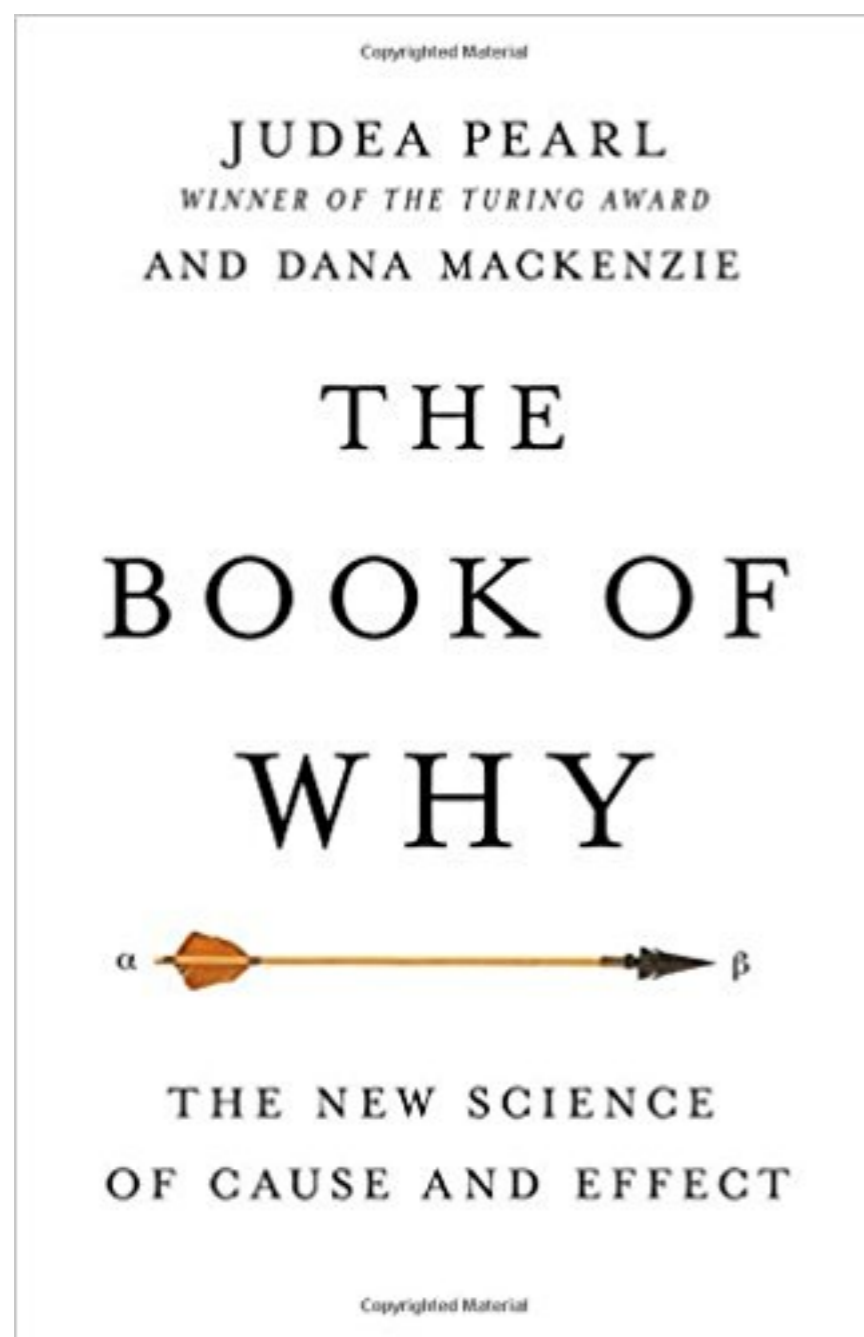


CONTACT INFO

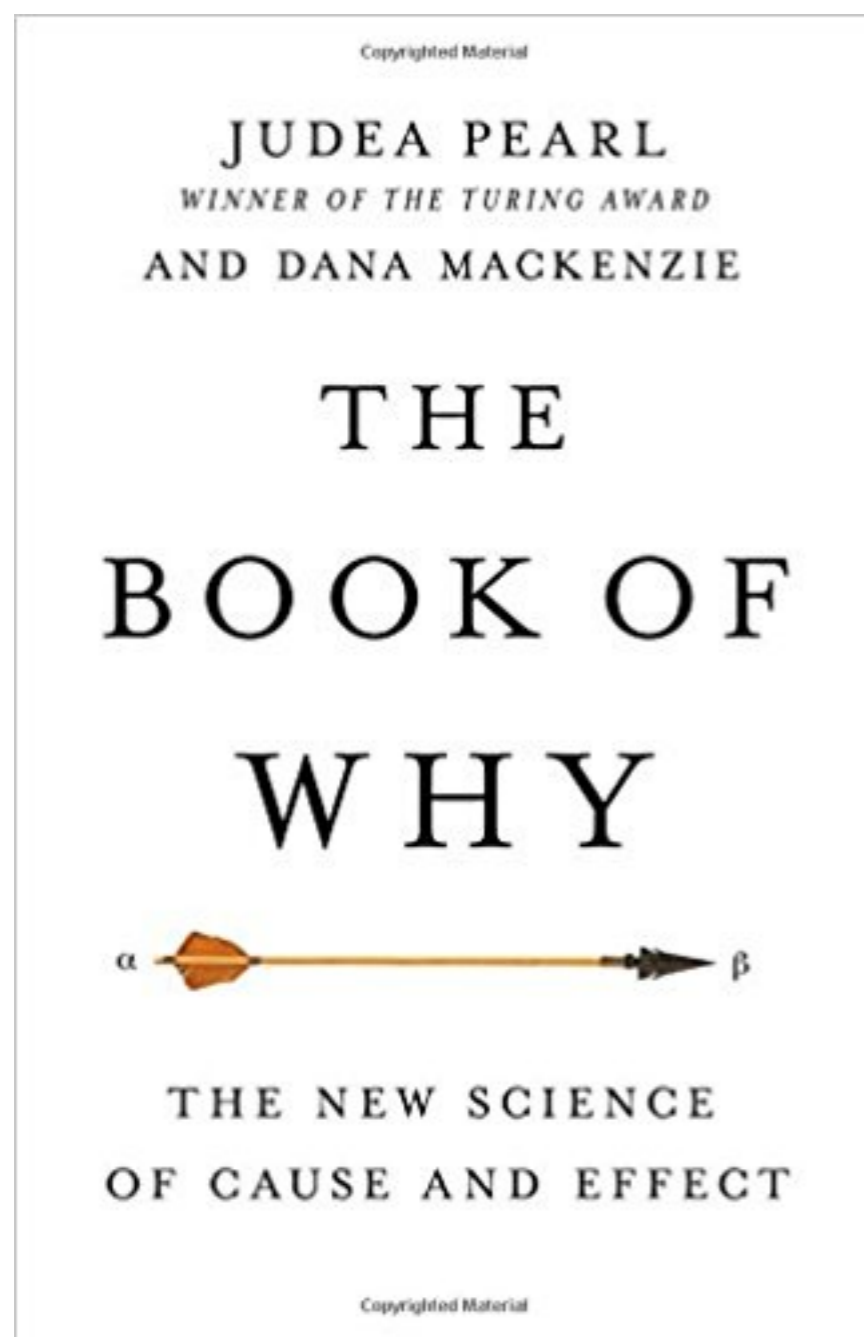
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Twitter: [@wustlcig](https://twitter.com/wustlcig)

**Judea Pearl won the Turing Award in 2011 for
fundamental contributions to artificial intelligence**

Judea Pearl won the Turing Award in 2011 for fundamental contributions to artificial intelligence



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We live in an era that presumes Big Data to be the solution to all our problems (...) **But I hope with this book to convince you that data are profoundly dumb.** Data can tell you that the people who took a medicine recovered faster than those who did not take it, but they can't tell you why.



Judea Pearl won the Turing Award in 2011 for fundamental contributions to artificial intelligence

The belief that data can tell the full story is a misconception. To produce truly useful insights, **data must be combined with models** that infuse what we know about the problem.

We live in an era that presumes Big Data to be the solution to all our problems. Courses in data science are proliferating in our universities and jobs for data

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THE NEW SCIENCE
OF CAUSE AND EFFECT



Judea Pearl