

# Solving Bayesian Inverse Problems via Variational Autoencoders

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# Overview

1. Inverse Problems Introduction
2. Flexible, Adaptive Framework for Rapid Data-Driven Uncertainty Quantification
3. Results
4. Conclusion

## Introduction - Inverse Problems

- Suppose we have a physical system with *states*  $y$  and *parameters*  $u$ .
- Whilst forward problems challenge us to find the observation data  $y_{\text{obs}}$  given the parameters  $u$ , inverse problems challenge us to find the parameters  $u$  given the observation data  $y_{\text{obs}}$ .
- An example is the heat equation with the state being temperature and parameters being the heat conductivity

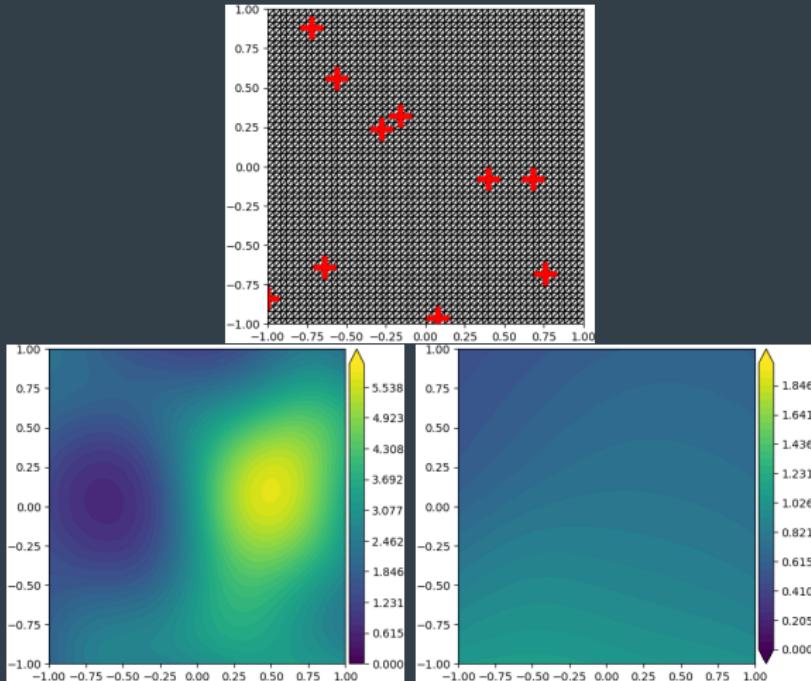
$$-\nabla \cdot u \nabla y = 0 \quad \text{in } \Omega \tag{1a}$$

$$-u(\nabla y \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}) = \text{Bi } y \quad \text{on } \Omega^{\text{ext}} \setminus \Omega^{\text{root}} \tag{1b}$$

$$-u(\nabla y \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}) = -1 \quad \text{on } \Omega^{\text{root}} \tag{1c}$$

where  $u$  denotes the thermal heat conductivity,  $\text{Bi}$  is the Biot number,  $\Omega$  is the physical domain and  $\Omega^{\text{root}}$  is the bottom edge of the domain,  $\Omega^{\text{ext}}$  is the exterior edges of the domain.

# Steady-State Heat Equation Parameters and State



**Figure:** Top: mesh and sensor distribution. Bottom left: parameter distribution. Bottom right: state distribution.

## Solution Process

- Often, we solve for the parameter by minimizing a functional

$$\min_{\mathbf{u}} \|\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}} - \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{u})\|_2^2 + \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{u}) \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathcal{F}$  is the parameter-to-observable (PtO) map,  $\mathcal{R}$  is some regularization functional and  $\mathbf{u}$  is the parameter-of-interest (PoI).

- What if we try and learn a parameterized inverse problem solver  $\Psi$  through optimizing

$$\min_{\mathbf{W}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \left\| \mathbf{u}^{(m)} - \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right\|_2^2 + \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{W}). \quad (3)$$

using a dataset of parameter and observation pairs  $\left\{ \left( \mathbf{u}^{(m)}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} \right) \right\}_{m=1}^M$ .

## Proposed Regularization

Instead of regularizing the weights of the network directly, one possible approach is to regularize the output of the network.

$$\min_{\mathbf{W}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \left\| \mathbf{u}^{(m)} - \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right\|_2^2 + \left\| \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} - \mathcal{F} \left( \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right) \right\|_2^2. \quad (4)$$

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where  $\mathcal{M}$  is some noise regularization operator.

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$$\min_{\mathbf{W}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \left\| \mathbf{u}^{(m)} - \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right\|_2^2 + \left\| \mathcal{M} \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} - \mathcal{F} \left( \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right) \right) \right\|_2^2 \quad (5)$$

where  $\mathcal{M}$  is some noise regularization operator.

$$\min_{\mathbf{W}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \left\| \mathbf{u}^{(m)} - \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right\|_2^2 + \left\| \mathcal{M} \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} - \mathcal{F} \left( \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right) \right) \right\|_2^2 \quad (6a)$$

$$+ \left\| \mathcal{P} \left( \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right) \right\|_2^2 \quad (6b)$$

where  $\mathcal{P}$  is a map encoding prior information.

## Motivation for Uncertainty Quantification

- Training a neural network through the optimization problem (6) yields a learned inverse problems solver that outputs a point estimate of our PoI.
- As it is, this deterministic solver is unable to provide information about the accuracy of the estimate. It would be more ideal to have a probabilistic interpretation of our learned solver that facilitates uncertainty quantification.
- With this in mind, we are motivated to view inverse problems under the framework of Bayesian statistics. In this setting, we instead work towards a solver for Bayesian inverse problems which, in turn, allows us to formally establish the regularization terms in (6).

## Bayesian Inverse Problems

- Under the statistical framework, the PoI of an inverse problem is considered to be a random variable instead of an unknown value.
- Consequently, the solution of the statistical inverse problem is a probability distribution instead of a single estimated value.
- The statistical framework attempts to remove the ill-posedness of inverse problems by restating the inverse problem as a well-posed extension in a larger space of probability distributions

## Bayesian Inverse Problems

- With the assumption that our data is corrupted by additive noise, we consider the following observational model

$$Y = \mathcal{F}(U) + E \quad (7)$$

- ‘given the observed data  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}$ , what is the distribution of the PoI  $U$  responsible for our measurement?’ Therefore, the conditional density  $p_{U|Y}(\mathbf{u}|Y = \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}})$  is the solution to the statistical parameter estimation problem under the Bayesian framework.

## Posterior Distribution

- To approximate this conditional density, we utilize Bayes' Theorem to form a model of  $p_{U|Y}(\mathbf{u}|Y = \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}})$  called the posterior distribution which we denote as  $p_{\text{post}}$ :

$$p_{\text{post}}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}) \propto p_{\text{lkhd}}(\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}|\mathbf{u}) p_{\text{pr}}(\mathbf{u}). \quad (8)$$

where  $p_{\text{lkhd}}$  is the likelihood model and  $p_{\text{pr}}$  is the prior model.

- This challenges us with the completion of three tasks:
  - construct the likelihood model  $p_{\text{lkhd}}$  that expresses the interrelation between the data and the unknown,
  - using prior information we may possess about the unknown  $\mathbf{u}$ , construct a prior probability density  $p_{\text{pr}}$  that expresses this information,
  - develop methods which extract meaningful information from the posterior probability density  $p_{\text{post}}$ .

## Posterior Distribution

To address these three tasks, two assumptions are often made:

1. The first assumption supposes that the noise  $E$  is mutually independent with respect to our parameter of interest  $U$ . Then, using our observation model (7) and marginalization of the noise  $E$ , we obtain the following likelihood model:

$$p_{\text{lkhd}} = p_E(\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}} - \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{u})). \quad (9)$$

2. The second assumption supposes that all random variables are Gaussian. That is,  $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_E, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_E)$  and  $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{pr}}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}})$ . With this, our posterior model becomes

$$p_{\text{post}}(\mathbf{u} | \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}) \propto p_E(\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}} - \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{u})) p_{\text{pr}}(\mathbf{u}) \quad (10a)$$

$$= \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \left( \|\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}} - \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{u}) - \boldsymbol{\mu}_E\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_E^{-1}}^2 + \|\mathbf{u} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{pr}}\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}^{-1}}^2 \right) \right) \quad (10b)$$

## Posterior Distribution

Recall:

$$\min_{\mathbf{W}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \left\| \mathbf{u}^{(m)} - \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right\|_2^2 + \left\| \mathcal{M} \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} - \mathcal{F} \left( \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right) \right) \right\|_2^2 \quad (11a)$$

$$+ \left\| \mathcal{P} \left( \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right) \right\|_2^2 \quad (11b)$$

The functionals

$$- \left\| \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}} - \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{u}) - \boldsymbol{\mu}_E \right\|_{\Gamma_E^{-1}}^2 + \left\| \mathbf{u} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{pr}} \right\|_{\Gamma_{\text{pr}}^{-1}}^2 \quad (12)$$

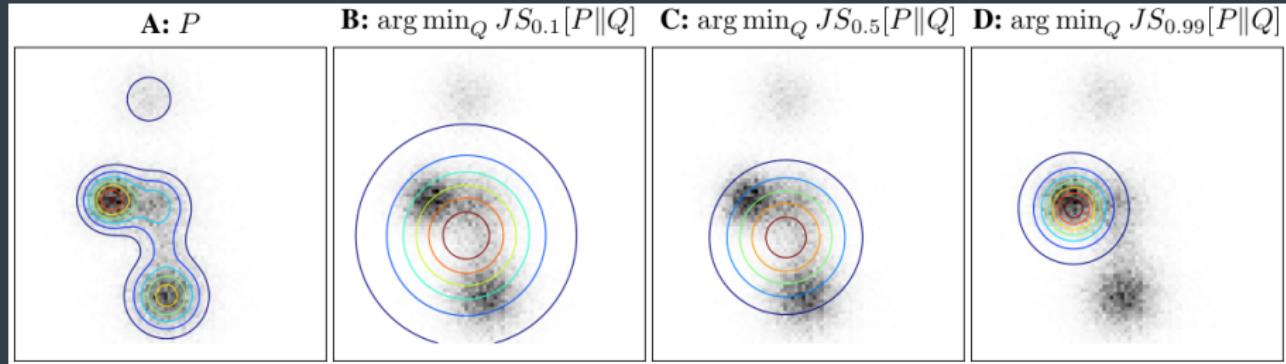
look like a good candidate for the regularization terms. We now formalize the inclusion of these terms.

## Notion of Distance

- Let  $p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})$  denote the target posterior density we wish to estimate and let  $q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})$  denote our model of the target density parameterized by  $\phi$ .
- To optimize for the parameters  $\phi$ , we require some notion of distance between our model posterior and target posterior.
- In our work, we elect to use the following family of Jensen-Shannon divergences (JSD) [Nielsen(2010)]:

$$\text{JS}_\alpha(q||p) = \alpha \text{KL}(q||(1-\alpha)q + \alpha p) + (1-\alpha) \text{KL}(p||(1-\alpha)q + \alpha p) \quad (13)$$

## JSD Family



**Figure:** Illustrating the behaviour of the JS divergence family for the case of under model underspecification for the range of values of  $\alpha$ . This figure was obtained from [Huszár(2015)]  
A: the target data. For images B, C and D, an unimodal Gaussian is used to approximate the target data where the contours show level sets of the approximating distribution  $q$ . B:  $\alpha = 0.1$ . C:  $\alpha = 0.5$ . D:  $\alpha = 0.9$ .

## Main Theorem

### Theorem

Let  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ . Then

$$\frac{1}{\alpha} \text{JS}_\alpha(q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) = -\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim q_\phi} \left[ \log \left( \alpha + \frac{(1-\alpha)q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})}{p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})} \right) \right] \quad (14a)$$

$$+ \log(p(\mathbf{y})) \quad (14b)$$

$$- L_{\text{JS}}(\phi, \mathbf{y}) \quad (14c)$$

where

$$L_{\text{JS}}(\phi, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})} \left[ \log \left( \alpha + \frac{(1-\alpha)q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})}{p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})} \right) \right] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim q_\phi} \left[ \log \left( \frac{p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u})}{q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})} \right) \right]. \quad (15)$$

## Insightful Corollary

### Corollary

Let  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$  and consider again (14). Equation (14) is bounded above such that:

$$\frac{1}{\alpha} \text{JS}_\alpha(q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) \leq -\text{KL}(q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) \quad (16a)$$

$$+ \log(p(\mathbf{y})) - \log(1 - \alpha) - \frac{(1 - \alpha) \log(1 - \alpha)}{\alpha} \quad (16b)$$

$$+ \frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} \text{KL}(p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) \quad (16c)$$

$$- \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim q_\phi} [\log(p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u})) + \text{KL}(q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{u}))]. \quad (16d)$$

In particular, we have that

$$-L_{\text{JS}}(\phi, \mathbf{y}) \leq -\frac{(1 - \alpha) \log(1 - \alpha)}{\alpha} + \frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} \text{KL}(p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) \quad (17a)$$

$$- \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim q_\phi} [\log(p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}))] + \text{KL}(q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{u})). \quad (17b)$$

## Key Point

The significance of Corollary 2 is that minimization of

$$\frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha} \text{KL}(p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||q_{\phi}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim q_{\phi}} [\log(p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}))] + \text{KL}(q_{\phi}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{u})) \quad (18)$$

with respect to  $\phi$  minimizes

$$\frac{1}{\alpha} \text{JS}_{\alpha}(q_{\phi}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) + \text{KL}(q_{\phi}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) \quad (19)$$

which is exactly the task of variational inference.

## Flexibility of our Framework

Note that for

$$\frac{1}{\alpha} \text{JS}_\alpha(q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) + \text{KL}(q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) \quad (20)$$

- Recalling

$$\text{JS}_\alpha(q||p) = \alpha \text{KL}(q||(1-\alpha)q + \alpha p) + (1-\alpha) \text{KL}(p||(1-\alpha)q + \alpha p) \quad (21)$$

It is clear that if  $\alpha = 1$  then we recover the usual zero-avoiding  $\text{KL}(q||p)$ . Indeed, as  $\alpha \rightarrow 1$ , then the first term in (18) tends to 0 which recovers the negative of the ELBO.

- In (20), the presence of the KLD term ensures that our model posterior will inherently be zero-avoiding. However, the  $\frac{1}{\alpha}$  scaling factor ensures that as  $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ , the consequently zero-forcing JSD dominates the KLD.

## Flexibility of our Framework

- Therefore, our UQ-VAE framework essentially retains the full flexibility of the JSD family.
- With only an adjustment of a single scalar value, our framework allows the selection of the notion of distance used by the optimization routine to direct the model posterior towards the target posterior.
- This, in turn, translates to control of the balance of data-fitting and regularization used in the training procedure.

## Regularized Optimization Framework

The minimization target:

$$\frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha} \text{KL}(p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim q_\phi} [\log(p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}))] + \text{KL}(q_\phi(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{u})) \quad (22)$$

correspond to the three desired terms:

$$\min_{\mathbf{W}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \left\| \mathbf{u}^{(m)} - \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right\|_2^2 + \left\| \mathcal{M} \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} - \mathcal{F} \left( \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right) \right) \right\|_2^2 \quad (23a)$$

$$+ \left\| \mathcal{P} \left( \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right) \right) \right\|_2^2. \quad (23b)$$

## Regularized Optimization Framework

First, notice that

$$\text{KL} (p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y}) || q_{\phi}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})} \left[ \log \left( \frac{p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})}{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})} \right) \right] \quad (24a)$$

$$= \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})} [\log(p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y}))]} - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})} [\log(q_{\phi}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y}))] \quad (24b)$$

where the first term can be omitted when optimizing with respect to  $\phi$  since it does not have any dependence on  $\phi$ .

## Regularized Optimization Framework

With dataset  $\left\{ \left( \mathbf{u}^{(m)}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} \right) \right\}_{m=1}^M$ , we form a Monte-Carlo approximation

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim p(\mathbf{u} | \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)})} \left[ -\log \left( q_{\phi} \left( \mathbf{u} | \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} \right) \right) \right] \approx -\log \left( q_{\phi} \left( \mathbf{u}^{(m)} | \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} \right) \right)$$

and assume a Gaussian model:  $q_{\phi} \left( \mathbf{u} | \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} \right) = \mathcal{N} \left( \mathbf{u} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} \right)$  to obtain

$$\frac{D}{2} \log(2\pi) + \frac{1}{2} \log \left| \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} \right| + \frac{1}{2} \left\| \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} - \mathbf{u}^{(m)} \right\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)}}^2.$$

## Regularized Optimization Framework

For the remaining terms:

$$-\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{u} \sim q_{\phi}} [\log(p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}))] = \left\| \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} - \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{W})) - \boldsymbol{\mu}_E \right\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_E^{-1}}^2 \quad (25)$$

and

$$\text{KL}(q_{\phi}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})|p(\mathbf{u})) = \text{tr} \left( \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} \right) + \left\| \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{pr}} \right\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}^{-1}}^2 + \log \frac{|\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}|}{|\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)}|} \quad (26)$$

## Regularized Optimization Framework

With dataset  $\left\{ \left( \mathbf{u}^{(m)}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} \right) \right\}_{m=1}^M$  we have the following optimization problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{W}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha} \left( \log |\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)}| + \left\| \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} - \mathbf{u}^{(m)} \right\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)-1}}^2 \right) \quad (27\text{a})$$

$$+ \left\| \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} - \mathcal{F} \left( \mathbf{u}_{\text{draw}}^{(m)}(\mathbf{W}) \right) - \boldsymbol{\mu}_E \right\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_E^{-1}}^2 \quad (27\text{b})$$

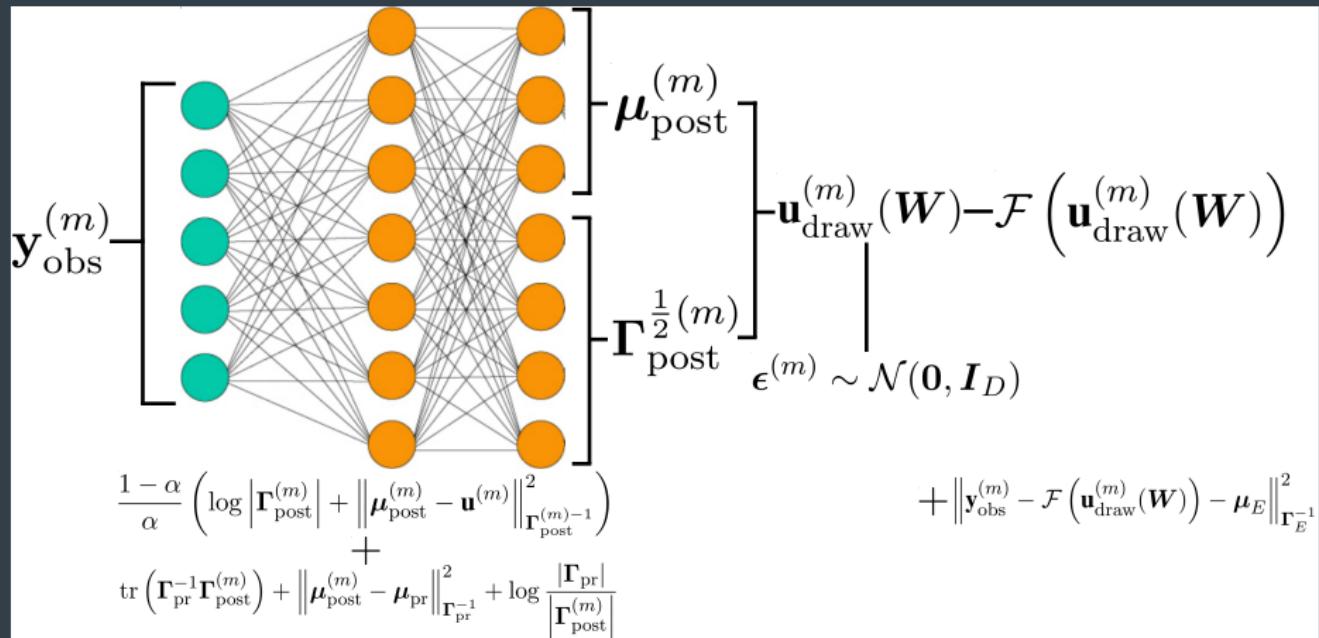
$$+ \text{tr} \left( \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} \right) + \left\| \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{pr}} \right\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}^{-1}}^2 + \log \frac{|\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}|}{|\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)}|} \quad (27\text{c})$$

$$\text{where } \left( \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{\frac{1}{2}(m)} \right) = \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right), \quad (27\text{d})$$

$$\mathbf{u}_{\text{draw}}^{(m)}(\mathbf{W}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} + \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{\frac{1}{2}(m)} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(m)}, \quad (27\text{e})$$

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(m)} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_D) \quad (27\text{f})$$

# Schematic



**Figure:** Schematic of the UQ-VAE framework.

## Inherent Adaptive Optimization

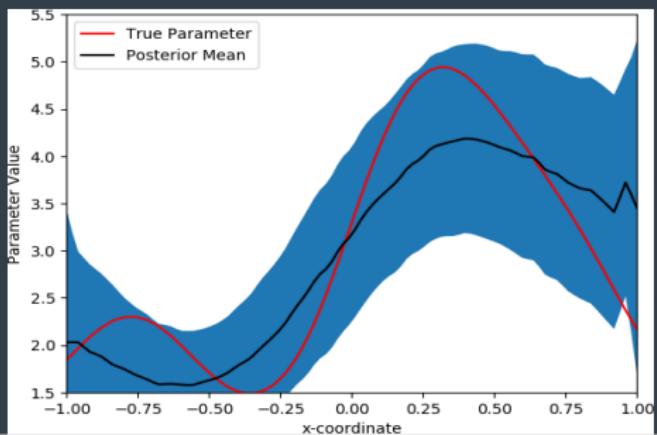
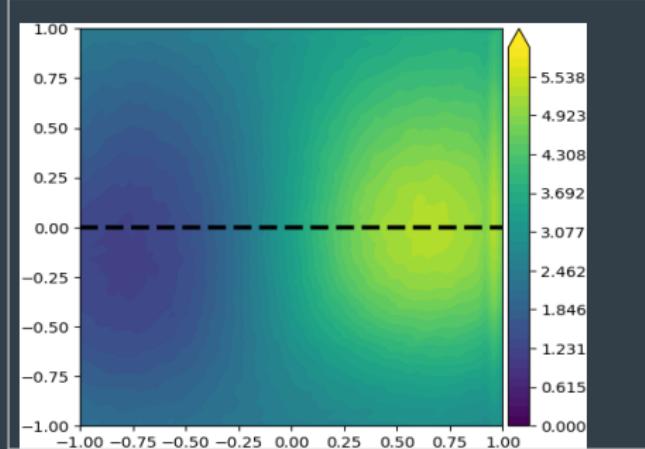
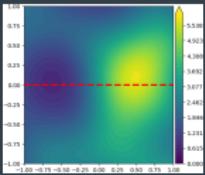
Looking closely at

$$\frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha} \left( \log |\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)}| + \left\| \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} - \mathbf{u}^{(m)} \right\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)-1}}^2 \right) \quad (28)$$

we can see that the presence of the matrix  $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)-1}$  in the weighted norm of (28) acts as an adaptive penalty for the data-misfit term. With this in mind, we make the following observations about the two terms in (28):

- Since  $\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha} = \infty$ , then a choice of  $\alpha \approx 0$  emphasizes the  $\log |\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{(m)}|$  term. This causes a preference for a small posterior variance which, in turn, creates a large penalization of the data-misfit term by the inverse of the posterior covariance.
- In contrast, a choice of  $\alpha \approx 0$  relieves the requirement of a small posterior variance to promote the influence of the PoI data on the optimization problem.

# Inherent Adaptive Optimization



## Analytical Result

Consider a Gaussian prior model  $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{pr}}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}})$  and Gaussian noise model  $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_E, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_E)$ . Suppose the target posterior  $p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{true}}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{true}})$  is such that

$$\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{true}} = \left( \mathbf{F}^T \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_E^{-1} \mathbf{F} + \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}^{-1} \right)^{-1} \quad (29a)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{true}} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{true}} \left( \mathbf{F}^T \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_E^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_E) + \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{pr}} \right) \quad (29b)$$

where  $\mathbf{F}$  is a matrix.

# Analytical Result

## Theorem

Suppose the model posterior  $q_{\phi}(u|y_{\text{obs}}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}})$  is such that

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}} = \mathbf{W}_{\mu} y_{\text{obs}} + \mathbf{b}_{\mu} \quad (30a)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \mathbf{L} \odot \mathbf{L}_1 + \text{diag}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) \quad (30b)$$

$$\log(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) = \mathbf{W}_{\sigma} y_{\text{obs}} + \mathbf{b}_{\sigma} \quad (30c)$$

$$\text{vec}(\mathbf{L}) = \mathbf{W}_L y_{\text{obs}} + \mathbf{b}_L \quad (30d)$$

where  $\mathbf{L}_1$  is a lower triangular matrix of ones with zeros on the diagonal. Let  $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$ . Then the optimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{W}_{\mu}, \mathbf{b}_{\mu}, \mathbf{W}_{\sigma}, \mathbf{b}_{\sigma}, \mathbf{W}_L, \mathbf{b}_L} \frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha} \left( \log |\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}| + \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{true}}) + \|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{true}}\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}^{-1}}^2 \right) \quad (31a)$$

$$+ \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_E^{-1} \mathbf{F} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}} \mathbf{F}^T) + \|y_{\text{obs}} - \mathbf{F} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_E\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_E^{-1}}^2 \quad (31b)$$

$$+ \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}) + \|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{pr}}\|_{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}^{-1}}^2 + \log \frac{|\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}|}{|\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}}|} \quad (31c)$$

achieves its minimum if and only if  $\mathbf{W}_{\mu}, \mathbf{b}_{\mu}, \mathbf{W}_{\sigma}, \mathbf{b}_{\sigma}, \mathbf{W}_L, \mathbf{b}_L$  are such that  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{true}}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{post}} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{true}}$ .

## Learning the PtO

With dataset  $\left\{ \left( \mathbf{u}^{(m)}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} \right) \right\}_{m=1}^M$  we have the following optimization problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{W}_d} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha} \left( \log |\Gamma_{\text{post}}^{(m)}| + \left\| \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} - \mathbf{u}^{(m)} \right\|_{\Gamma_{\text{post}}^{(m)-1}}^2 \right) \quad (32a)$$

$$+ \left\| \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)} - \Psi_d \left( \mathbf{u}_{\text{draw}}^{(m)}(\mathbf{W}), \mathbf{W}_d \right) - \boldsymbol{\mu}_E \right\|_{\Gamma_E^{-1}}^2 \quad (32b)$$

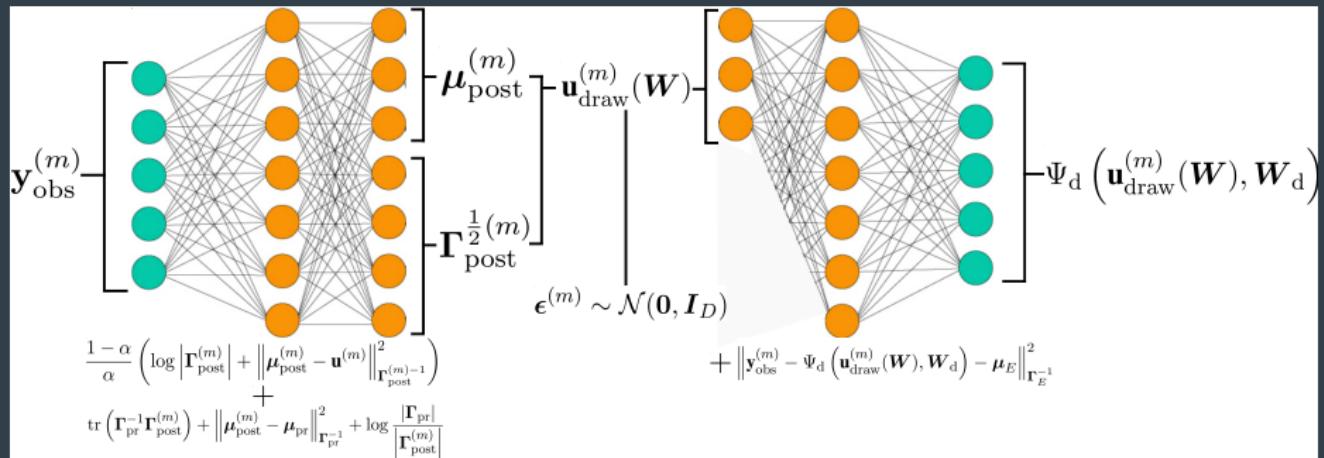
$$+ \text{tr} \left( \Gamma_{\text{pr}}^{-1} \Gamma_{\text{post}}^{(m)} \right) + \left\| \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{pr}} \right\|_{\Gamma_{\text{pr}}^{-1}}^2 + \log \frac{|\Gamma_{\text{pr}}|}{|\Gamma_{\text{post}}^{(m)}|} \quad (32c)$$

$$\text{where } \left( \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)}, \Gamma_{\text{post}}^{\frac{1}{2}(m)} \right) = \Psi \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}^{(m)}, \mathbf{W} \right), \quad (32d)$$

$$\mathbf{u}_{\text{draw}}^{(m)}(\mathbf{W}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}}^{(m)} + \Gamma_{\text{post}}^{\frac{1}{2}(m)} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(m)}, \quad (32e)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(m)} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_D) \quad (32f)$$

# Schematic



**Figure:** Schematic of the UQ-VAE framework where the PtO is learned.

## Computational Cost

Problem dimension is 2601 degrees of freedom.

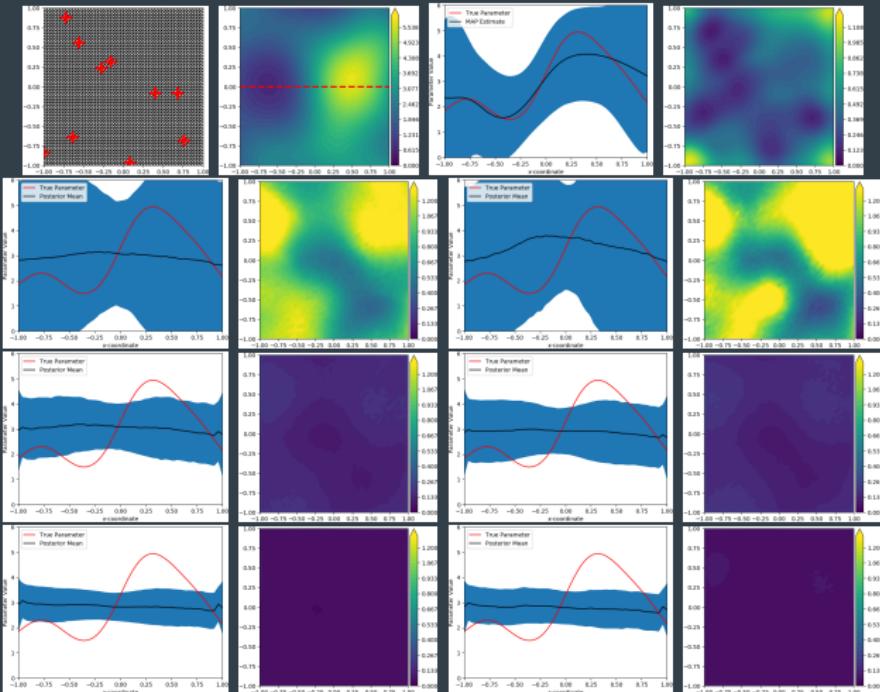
Training Cost:

- Modelled PtO map  $\mathcal{F}$  (CPU):  
4.5 seconds per batch on a dual-socket node with two Intel Xeon E5-2690 CPUs for a total of 24 cores.  
Approximately one day for 400 epochs of batch-size 100 when  $M = 5000$
- Learned PtO map  $\Psi_d$  (GPU):  
0.35 seconds per batch on a NVidia 1080-TI GPU.  
Approximately 10 minutes for 400 epochs of batch-size 100 when  $M = 5000$

Inference Cost:

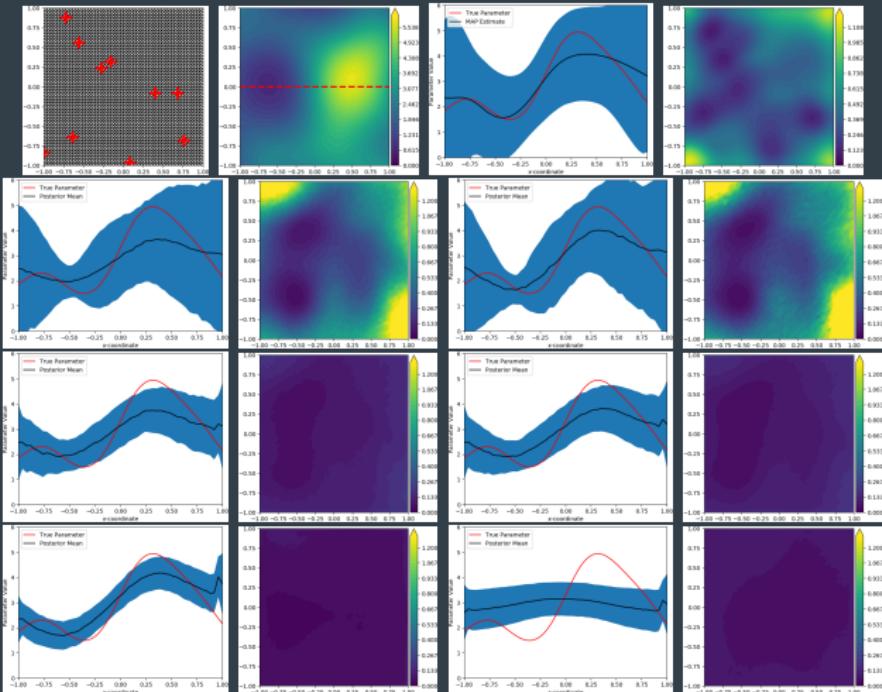
- In total, it takes on average 110 seconds to form the Laplace approximation.
- Forming the model posterior by propagation through a trained neural network takes, on average, 0.04 seconds; more than 2750 times faster.

# Results: 0% Noise, $M = 50$



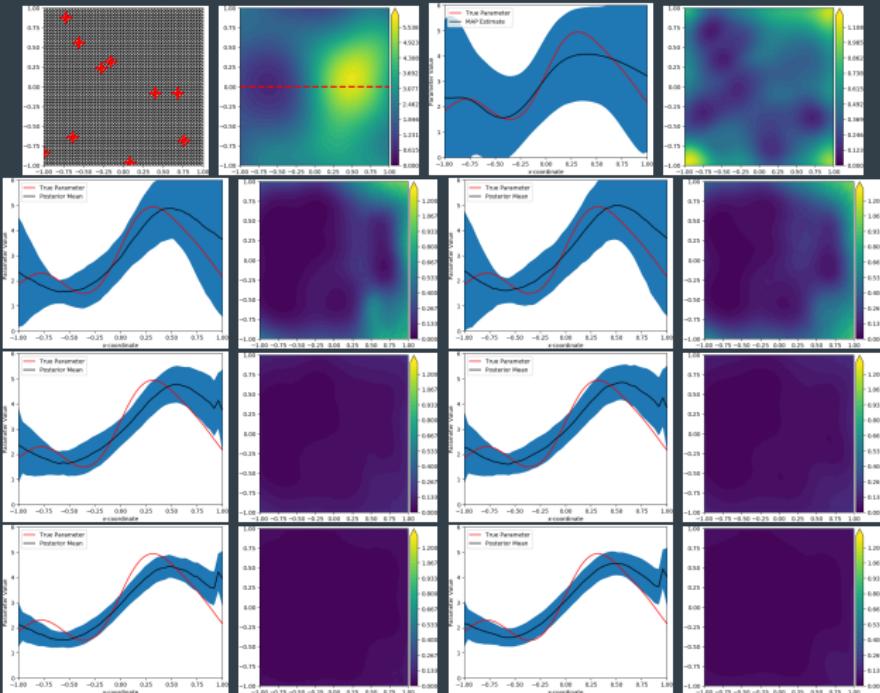
**Figure:** Top row left to right: mesh with sensors denoted with a red cross, true PoI, cross-sectional uncertainty estimate and pointwise posterior variance from Laplace approximation. Second to fourth rows:  $\alpha = 0.00001, 0.1, 0.5$ . First and third columns: cross-sectional uncertainty estimates. Second and fourth columns: approximate pointwise posterior variance. First and second columns: modelled PtO map. Third and fourth columns: learned PtO map.

# Results: 0% Noise, $M = 500$



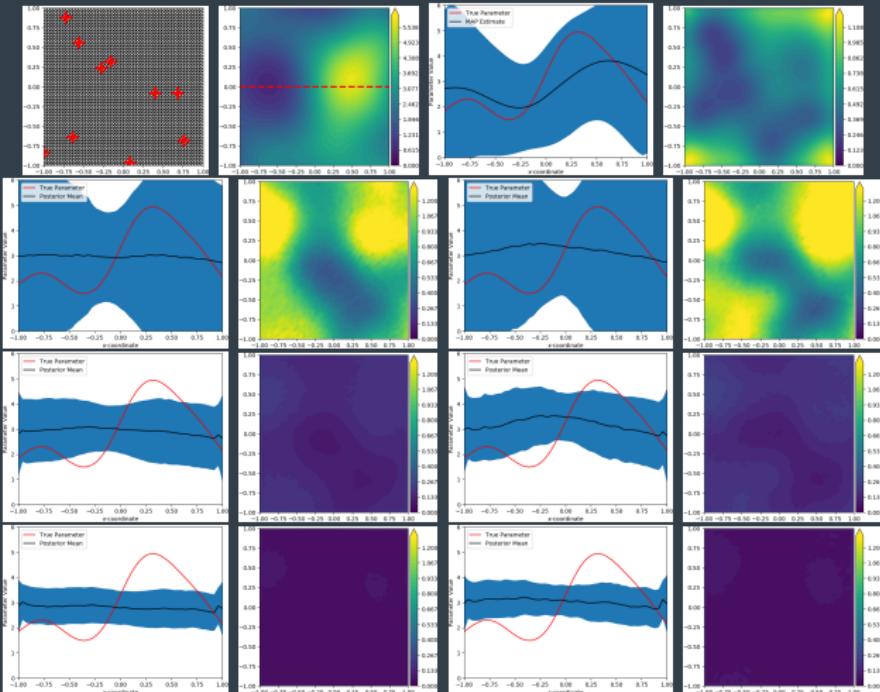
**Figure:** Top row left to right: mesh with sensors denoted with a red cross, true PoI, cross-sectional uncertainty estimate and pointwise posterior variance from Laplace approximation. Second to fourth rows:  $\alpha = 0.00001, 0.1, 0.5$ . First and third columns: cross-sectional uncertainty estimates. Second and fourth columns: approximate pointwise posterior variance. First and second columns: modelled PtO map. Third and fourth columns: learned PtO map.

# Results: 0% Noise, $M = 5000$



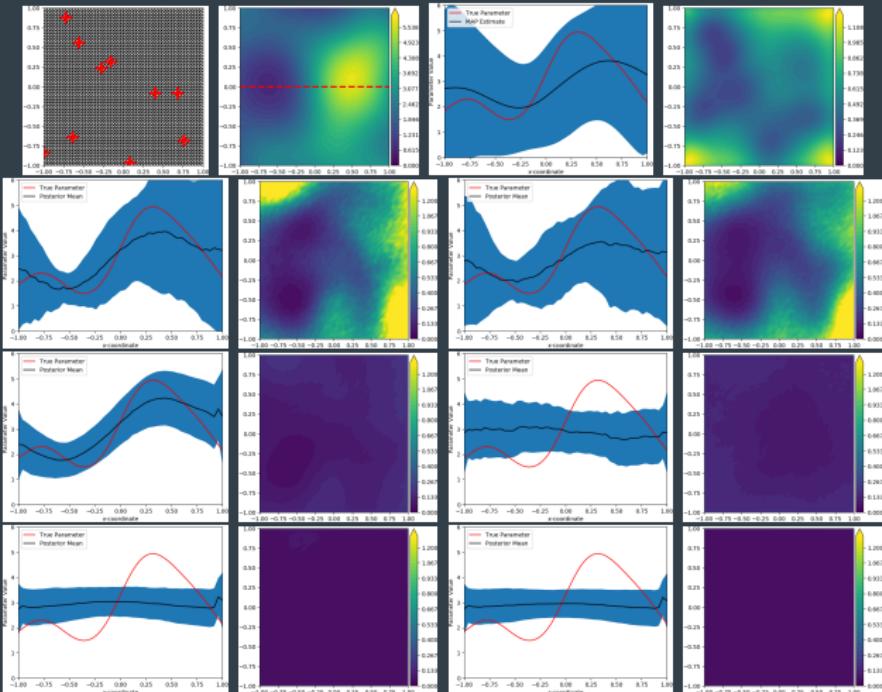
**Figure:** Top row left to right: mesh with sensors denoted with a red cross, true PoI, cross-sectional uncertainty estimate and pointwise posterior variance from Laplace approximation. Second to fourth rows:  $\alpha = 0.00001, 0.1, 0.5$ . First and third columns: cross-sectional uncertainty estimates. Second and fourth columns: approximate pointwise posterior variance. First and second columns: modelled PtO map. Third and fourth columns: learned PtO map.

# Results: 1% Noise, $M = 50$



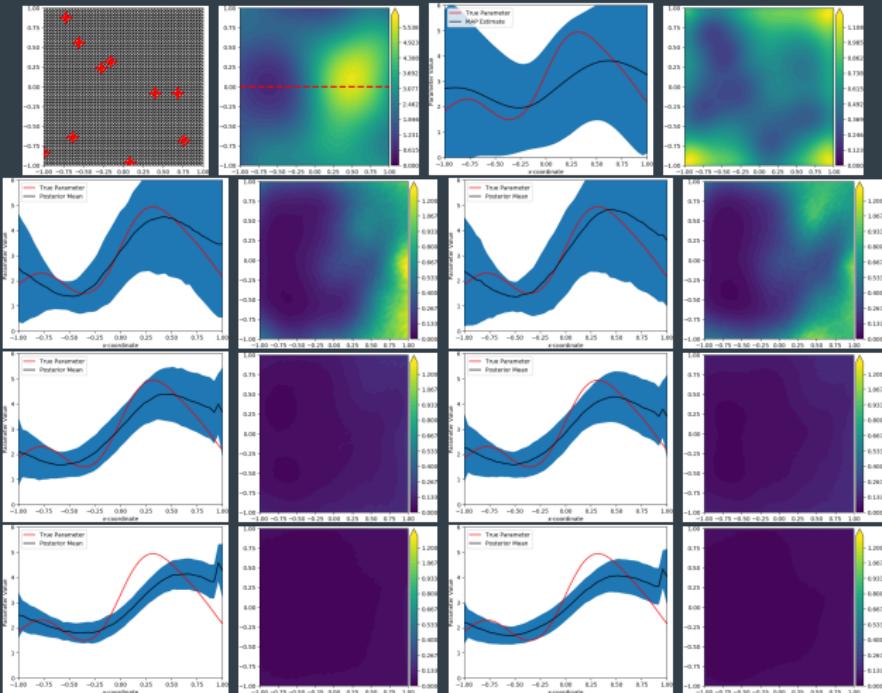
**Figure:** Top row left to right: mesh with sensors denoted with a red cross, true PoI, cross-sectional uncertainty estimate and pointwise posterior variance from Laplace approximation. Second to fourth rows:  $\alpha = 0.00001, 0.1, 0.5$ . First and third columns: cross-sectional uncertainty estimates. Second and fourth columns: approximate pointwise posterior variance. First and second columns: modelled PtO map. Third and fourth columns: learned PtO map.

# Results: 1% Noise, $M = 500$



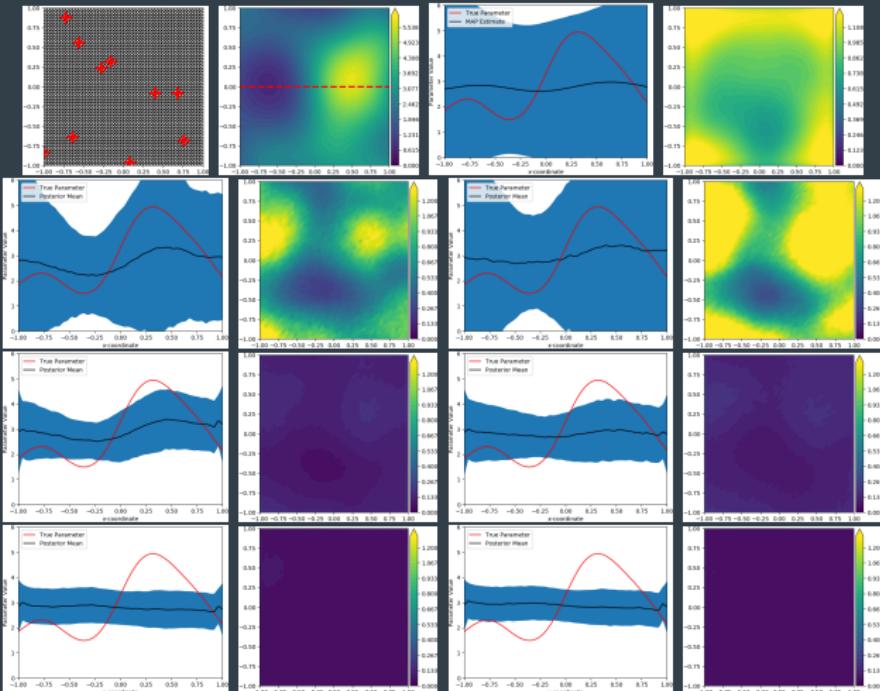
**Figure:** Top row left to right: mesh with sensors denoted with a red cross, true PoI, cross-sectional uncertainty estimate and pointwise posterior variance from Laplace approximation. Second to fourth rows:  $\alpha = 0.00001, 0.1, 0.5$ . First and third columns: cross-sectional uncertainty estimates. Second and fourth columns: approximate pointwise posterior variance. First and second columns: modelled PtO map. Third and fourth columns: learned PtO map.

# Results: 1% Noise, $M = 5000$



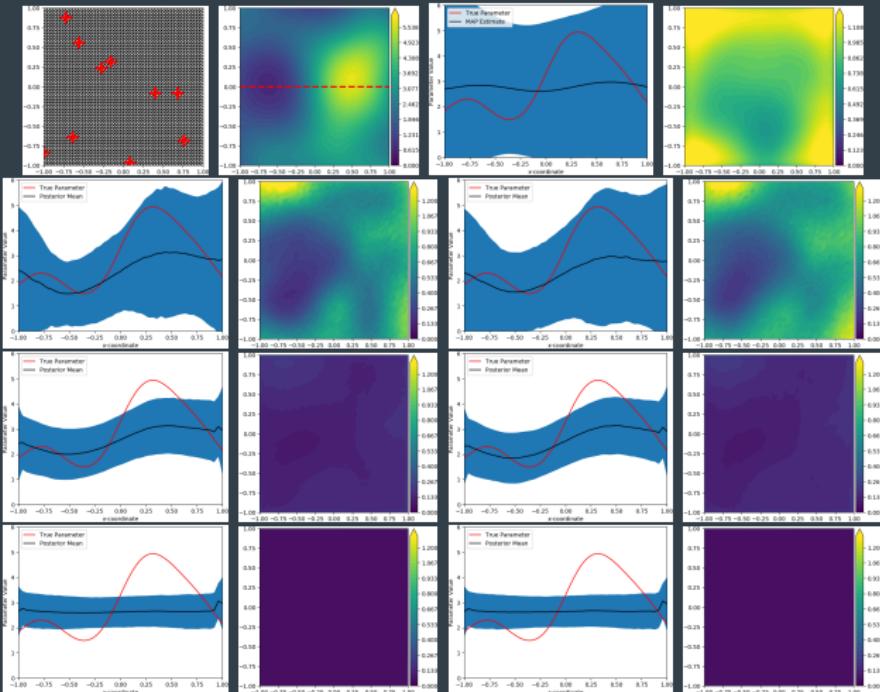
**Figure:** Top row left to right: mesh with sensors denoted with a red cross, true PoI, cross-sectional uncertainty estimate and pointwise posterior variance from Laplace approximation. Second to fourth rows:  $\alpha = 0.00001, 0.1, 0.5$ . First and third columns: cross-sectional uncertainty estimates. Second and fourth columns: approximate pointwise posterior variance. First and second columns: modelled PtO map. Third and fourth columns: learned PtO map.

# Results: 5% Noise, $M = 50$



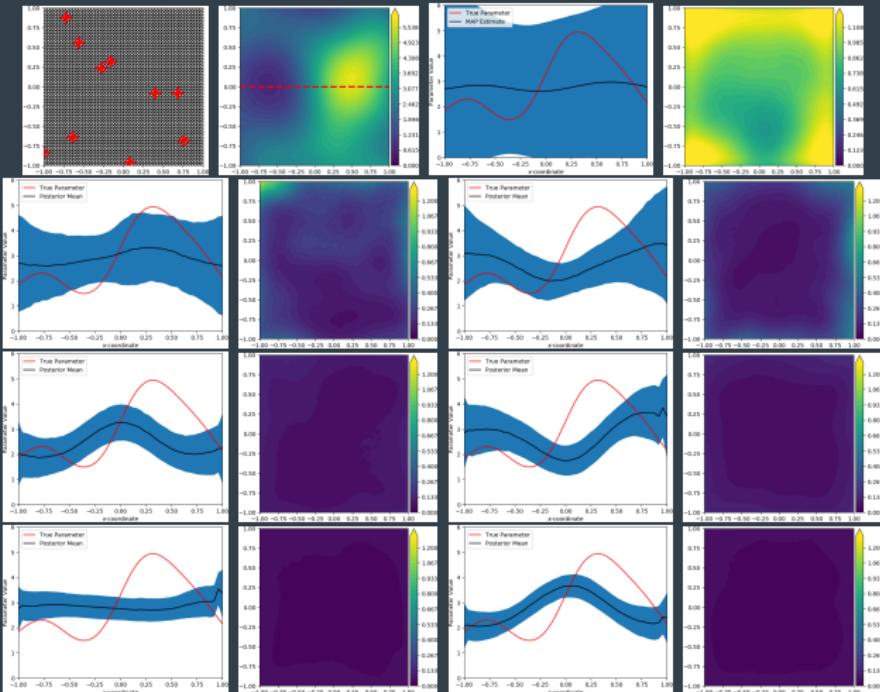
**Figure:** Top row left to right: mesh with sensors denoted with a red cross, true PoI, cross-sectional uncertainty estimate and pointwise posterior variance from Laplace approximation. Second to fourth rows:  $\alpha = 0.00001, 0.1, 0.5$ . First and third columns: cross-sectional uncertainty estimates. Second and fourth columns: approximate pointwise posterior variance. First and second columns: modelled PtO map. Third and fourth columns: learned PtO map.

# Results: 5% Noise, $M = 500$



**Figure:** Top row left to right: mesh with sensors denoted with a red cross, true PoI, cross-sectional uncertainty estimate and pointwise posterior variance from Laplace approximation. Second to fourth rows:  $\alpha = 0.00001, 0.1, 0.5$ . First and third columns: cross-sectional uncertainty estimates. Second and fourth columns: approximate pointwise posterior variance. First and second columns: modelled PtO map. Third and fourth columns: learned PtO map.

# Results: 5% Noise, $M = 5000$



**Figure:** Top row left to right: mesh with sensors denoted with a red cross, true PoI, cross-sectional uncertainty estimate and pointwise posterior variance from Laplace approximation. Second to fourth rows:  $\alpha = 0.00001, 0.1, 0.5$ . First and third columns: cross-sectional uncertainty estimates. Second and fourth columns: approximate pointwise posterior variance. First and second columns: modelled PtO map. Third and fourth columns: learned PtO map.

## Key Observations

- Selecting  $\alpha$  small (zero-forcing KLD) yields larger uncertainty estimates
- Smaller datasets yield larger uncertainty estimates representing the lack of information
- Larger noise regularization yields larger uncertainty estimates
- Our framework yields feasible estimates for 0% and 1% noise but struggles with 5% noise when a large dataset is used

## Conclusion

- This framework is derived from a solid mathematical foundation and possesses a complex, dynamic interplay of many factors from variational inference as well as regularization.
- Despite this complexity, the results show that the framework is robust and, aside from the usual tunable parameters associated with neural network architecture, requires relatively few design decisions.
- Our results also show that the estimates from our framework exhibits behaviour similar to that of more traditional methods.
- Our results also show that the estimates from our framework is responsive to the training dataset size. Larger datasets represent more information which is communicated with smaller uncertainty estimates.
- However, our preliminary investigation utilizes somewhat crude approximations. We believe that the results presented in this paper can be improved with the inclusion of more sophisticated statistical machinery.

## Data-Driven Double-Edged Sword

- The utilization of datasets alleviates the burden on accurate prior and physics modelling.
- Poorly constructed or highly corrupted datasets could completely sabotage the inversion process regardless of any accuracy achieved by the prior and physics models.

## Retains the Same Strategy of Traditional Methods

- Recall

$$p_{\text{post}}(\mathbf{u} | \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}) \propto p_E(\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}} - \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{u})) p_{\text{pr}}(\mathbf{u}) \quad (33a)$$

$$= \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} (\|\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_E^{-1}(\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}} - \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{u}) - \boldsymbol{\mu}_E)\|_{\mathbb{R}^O}^2 + \|\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{\text{pr}}^{-1}(\mathbf{u} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{pr}})\|_{\mathbb{R}^D}^2) \right). \quad (33b)$$

Where  $\mathbf{u} = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_D]^T$  where

$$u_d = \sum_{k=1}^D u_d \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}_d). \quad (34)$$

- In contrast, one can view a neural network as an expansion over a non-linear basis. Indeed, consider a two-layer neural network to output the model posterior mean  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{post}} = [\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_D]^T$ :

$$\mu_d \left( \mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}, \mathbf{W}^{\langle 1 \rangle}, \mathbf{W}^{\langle 2 \rangle} \right) = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathbf{W}_{dk}^{\langle 2 \rangle} h \left( \sum_{o=1}^O \mathbf{W}_{ko}^{\langle 1 \rangle} y_o \right) \quad (35)$$

where  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}} = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_O]^T$ ,  $\mathbf{W}^{\langle l \rangle}$  is the  $l$ th layer of weights and  $h$  is an activation function.

- With this view, we have the non-linear basis function  $\varphi_k = h \left( \sum_{o=1}^O \mathbf{W}_{ko}^{\langle 1 \rangle} y_o \right)$  which is dependent on the optimization target  $\mathbf{W}^{\langle 1 \rangle}$ .

## Retains the Same Strategy of Traditional Methods

Here are a few points to consider:

- Whilst the inference procedure for a traditional method involves an optimization problem, the inference procedure of UQ-VAE involves a propagation through a trained neural network. Indeed, optimization is only required in UQ-VAE for training.
- Notice that the non-linear basis function  $\varphi_k = h \left( \sum_{o=1}^O W_{ko}^{(1)} y_o \right)$  includes a dependence on the observation data  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{obs}}$ . It is this characteristic that encapsulates the idea that the optimization problem is used to train a solver.
- Whilst the optimization target for the traditional method appears only in the expansion coefficients, the optimization target for UQ-VAE appears in the basis function as well as its expansion coefficient. Therefore, intuitively, the optimization process for UQ-VAE is more ill-posed.

## Generality Allows Jumping on the Band-wagon

- What we offer here is a mathematical framework and not a neural network architecture.
- Benefit of this is we are left with a lot of room to sprinkle deep learning magic (ResNets, CNNs, Transformers, Domain specific-architectures)



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A family of statistical symmetric divergences based on jensen's inequality.  
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