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# Efficient Bayesian Computational Imaging with a Surrogate Score-Based Prior: Supplementary Materials

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Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

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## 16 1 Forward models

17 In our experiments, we considered forward models of the form

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_{\mathbf{y}}^2, \mathbf{I}). \quad (1)$$

18 This corresponds to the log-likelihood function

$$\log p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}) \propto -\frac{1}{2\sigma_{\mathbf{y}}^2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2. \quad (2)$$

19 In this section, we describe the forward models of the inverse problems mentioned in the main text:  
20 accelerated MRI, denoising, and reconstruction from low spatial frequencies (“deblurring”).

## 21 1.1 Accelerated MRI

22 Accelerated MRI collects sparse spatial-frequency measurements in  $\kappa$ -space of an underlying anatom-  
 23 ical image. As the acceleration rate increases, the number of measurements decreases. In accelerated  
 24 MRI, the forward model can be written as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{M} \odot \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}^*) + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_{\mathbf{y}}^2 \mathbf{I}), \quad (3)$$

25 where  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^D$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^M$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  denotes the 2D Fourier transform, and  $\mathbf{M} \in \{0, 1\}^D$  is a binary  
 26 sampling mask that reduces the number of non-zero measurements to  $M \ll D$ . Often  $\sigma_{\mathbf{y}}$  is assumed  
 27 to be small (e.g., corresponding to an SNR of at least 30 dB). We use Poisson-disc sampling [5] to  
 28 obtain a sampling mask. 16 $\times$ -acceleration, for example, corresponds to a sampling mask with only  
 29 1/16 nonzero elements.

30 **Experimental setup.** In our experiments, we assumed that  $|\sigma_{\mathbf{y}}|$  is 0.05% of the DC (zero-frequency)  
 31 amplitude. This corresponds to a maximum SNR of 40 dB. The only exception is for comparison to  
 32 baselines (Fig. 5), since baseline methods do not account for measurement noise. In this case, we let  
 33  $|\sigma_{\mathbf{y}}| = 0.1\%$  of the DC amplitude along the horizontal direction of the true image, which amounts to  
 34 a very low level of noise.

## 35 1.2 Denoising

36 The denoising forward model is simply

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_{\mathbf{y}}^2 \mathbf{I}), \quad (4)$$

37 where  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ , and  $\sigma_{\mathbf{y}}$  determines the level of i.i.d. Gaussian noise added to the clean image to get  
 38  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ .

39 **Experimental setup.** In our presented experiments on denoising,  $\sigma_{\mathbf{y}} = 0.2$ , which is 20% of the  
 40 dynamic range of the image.

## 41 1.3 Deblurring

42 We refer to the task of reconstruction from low spatial-frequency measurements as deblurring. The  
 43 forward model is given by

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{D}\mathbf{x} + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_{\mathbf{y}}^2 \mathbf{I}), \quad (5)$$

44 where  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^D$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^M$ .  $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times D}$  is the 2D discrete Fourier transform (DFT) matrix with  
 45 only the first  $M$  basis functions.

46 **Experimental setup.** In our presented experiments on deblurring, the measurements are the lowest  
 47 6.25% of the DFT components, and  $|\sigma_{\mathbf{y}}| = 1$ .

# 48 2 Variational distributions

## 49 2.1 RealNVP

50 The architecture of the RealNVP is determined by the number of affine-coupling layers and the width  
 51 of each layer. For images up to  $64 \times 64$ , we use 32 affine-coupling layers and set the number of  
 52 hidden neurons in the first layer to 1/8 of the image dimensionality (e.g.,  $32 \cdot 32 \cdot 3/8$  for  $32 \times 32$   
 53 RGB images). We use batch normalization in the network. Please refer to the original DPI [4]  
 54 PyTorch implementation<sup>1</sup> for details on the architecture. Our implementation is an adaptation of this  
 55 codebase in JAX.

## 56 2.2 Gaussian

57 Other experiments use a multivariate Gaussian distribution with a diagonal covariance matrix as the  
 58 variational distribution. In this case, the parameters are the mean image and the pixel-wise standard  
 59 deviation. We initialize the mean at 0.5 and the standard deviation at 0.1 for all pixels. To sample, we  
 60 take the absolute value of the standard deviation and construct the diagonal covariance matrix.

<sup>1</sup><https://github.com/HeSunPU/DPI>

### 61 3 Experiment details

62 For the sake of reproducibility, we detail the experimental setup behind each figure. Our code will be  
63 made publicly available.

64 Some common implementation details are that the exact prior ( $\log p_{\theta}^{\text{ODE}}$ ) is always estimated with 16  
65 trace estimators. The RealNVP always has 32 affine-coupling layers.

#### 66 3.1 MRI efficiency experiment (Tab. 1, Fig. 2)

67 **Score model.** For each image size, the score model was an NCSN++ architecture with 64 filters in  
68 the first layer and trained with the VP SDE with  $\beta_{\min} = 0.1$ ,  $\beta_{\max} = 10$ .

69 **Variational optimization.** For each task (i.e., each image size and prior), the variational distribution  
70 was a multivariate Gaussian with diagonal covariance. The batch size was 64, learning rate 0.0002,  
71 and gradient clip 1. A convergence criterion based on the loss value is difficult to define due to high  
72 variance of the loss (we used 1 time sample to estimate  $b_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ ). We defined a convergence criterion  
73 based on the change in the mean of the variational distribution. Specifically, every 10000 steps, we  
74 evaluated a snapshot of the variational Gaussian and computed  $\delta = \|\mu_{\text{curr}} - \mu_{\text{prev}}\| / \|\mu_{\text{prev}}\|$ , where  
75  $\mu_{\text{curr}}$  and  $\mu_{\text{prev}}$  are the current and previous snapshot means, respectively. If  $\delta < \varepsilon$  for some threshold  
76  $\varepsilon$  two snapshots in a row, then the optimization was considered converged. Since convergence rate  
77 depends on the image size and the prior used, we set a different  $\varepsilon$  for each task:

- 78 •  $16 \times 16$  (surrogate):  $\varepsilon = 0.002$
- 79 •  $32 \times 32$  (surrogate):  $\varepsilon = 0.003$
- 80 •  $64 \times 64$  (surrogate):  $\varepsilon = 0.005$
- 81 •  $128 \times 128$  (surrogate):  $\varepsilon = 0.007$
- 82 •  $256 \times 256$  (surrogate):  $\varepsilon = 0.009$
- 83 •  $16 \times 16$  (exact):  $\varepsilon = 0.0025$
- 84 •  $32 \times 32$  (exact):  $\varepsilon = 0.0027$
- 85 •  $64 \times 64$  (exact):  $\varepsilon = 0.005$

86 We were conservative in defining the convergence and checked that optimization under the surrogate  
87 actually achieved better sample quality than optimization under the exact prior (see Main Fig. 2).

88 **Data.** The test image is from the fastMRI [6] single-coil knee test dataset and was resized to  $64 \times 64$   
89 with antialiasing.

#### 90 3.2 256x256 MRI examples (Fig. 1)

91 The  $4\times$ -acceleration result is from the efficiency experiment (Main Tab. 1 and Fig. 2) on the  $256 \times 256$   
92 test image. The  $16\times$ -acceleration result came from a similar setup, where the variational distribution  
93 was Gaussian with diagonal covariance. Optimization was done with a batch size of 64, learning  
94 rate of 0.00001, and gradient clip of 0.0002. We ran optimization for 270K steps (optimization for  
95  $4\times$ -acceleration was done in 100K steps with the convergence criterion).

96 In the figure caption, we report that the true image is within three standard deviations of the inferred  
97 posterior mean for 96% and 99% of the pixels for  $16\times$ - and  $4\times$ -acceleration, respectively. This was  
98 computed based on the mean and standard deviation of 128 samples from the inferred posterior. We  
99 find the same result when using the exact mean and standard deviation of the inferred posterior: with  
100 respect to the inferred posterior, the true image is within three standard deviations of the mean for  
101 96.7% and 99.0% of the pixels for  $16\times$ - and  $4\times$ -acceleration, respectively.

#### 102 3.3 Ground-truth posterior (Fig. 3a)

103 **Data.** The mean and covariance of the ground-truth Gaussian prior were fit with PCA (with 256  
104 principal components) to training data from the CelebA dataset [1]. The CelebA images were resized  
105 to  $16 \times 16$  with antialiasing.

106 **Score model.** The score model was based on the DDPM++ deep continuous architecture of Song  
 107 et al. [2] with 128 filters in the first layer. It was trained with the VP SDE with  $\beta_{\min} = 0.1$  and  
 108  $\beta_{\max} = 20$  for 100K steps.

109 **Variational optimization.** The variational distribution was a RealNVP. Under the surrogate prior,  
 110 optimization was done with a learning rate of 0.00005 and gradient clip of 1. Under the exact prior,  
 111 the learning rate was 0.0002 and gradient clip 1. Both priors used a batch size of 64.

### 112 3.4 32x32 image denoising (Fig. 3b)

113 **Variational optimization.** For both CelebA denoising (i) and CIFAR-10 denoising (ii), the variational  
 114 distribution was a RealNVP. Optimization under the surrogate prior was done with a learning rate of  
 115 0.00001 and gradient clip of 1. For CelebA, the batch size was 64 and training was done for 1.72M  
 116 steps (convergence was probably achieved earlier, but we continued training to be conservative).  
 117 For CIFAR-10, the batch size was 128 and training was done for 550K steps. For both (i) and (ii),  
 118 optimization under the exact prior was done with a learning rate of 0.0002 and gradient clip of 1 for  
 119 20K steps.

120 **Score model.** For both (i) and (ii), the score model had an NCSN++ architecture with 64 filters in the  
 121 first layer. For the CelebA prior, it was trained with the VP SDE with  $\beta_{\min} = 0.1$  and  $\beta_{\max} = 20$  and  
 122 with images that were resized without antialiasing. For the CIFAR-10 prior, it was trained with the  
 123 VP SDE with  $\beta_{\min} = 0.1$  and  $\beta_{\max} = 10$ .

124 **Data.** Both the CelebA image and the CIFAR-10 image are  $32 \times 32$ . The CelebA image was resized  
 125 without antialiasing.

### 126 3.5 Bound gap (Fig. 4)

127 Visualization of the bound gap is shown for optimization of the RealNVP from Fig. 3b(i) (i.e.,  $32 \times 32$   
 128 CelebA denoising). For the plots comparing the lower-bound to the ODE log-probability, we used  
 129 2048 time samples to estimate  $b_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ .

### 130 3.6 Image-restoration metrics (Fig. 5)

131 **Score model.** The score model is the same as the one used for the  $64 \times 64$  image in the MRI efficiency  
 132 experiment (Main Fig. 2).

133 **Variational optimization.** The variational distribution was a RealNVP. Optimization was done with  
 134 a learning rate of 0.00001 and gradient clip of 0.0002. We used the same convergence criterion as the  
 135 one used in the MRI efficiency experiment with  $\varepsilon = 0.005$ .

136 **Baseline hyperparameters.** For SDE+PoJ, we used the projection CS solver provided  
 137 by Song et al. [3] with the hyperparameters `snr=0.517`, `coeff=1`. For Score-ALD, we  
 138 used the langevin CS solver with the hyperparameters `n_steps_each=3`, `snr=0.212`,  
 139 `projection_sigma_rate=0.713`. For DPS, we used `scale=0.5`. This was the best scale out  
 140 of  $[10, 1, 0.9, 0.5, 0.3, 0.1, 0.001]$  for a test image in terms of PSNR with respect to the true image.

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